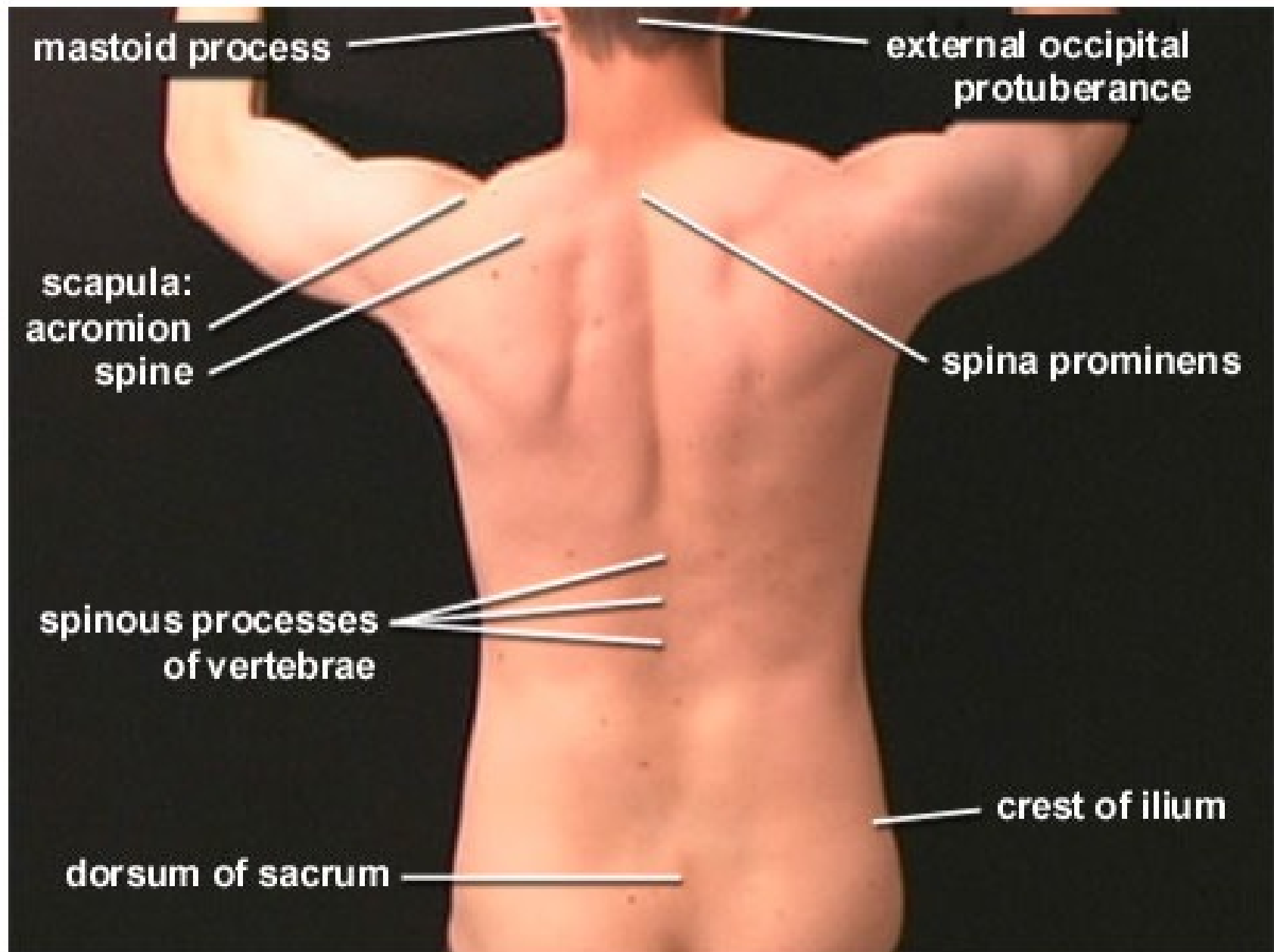


# TRUNK MUSCLES: BACK

## Surface Anatomy: Back



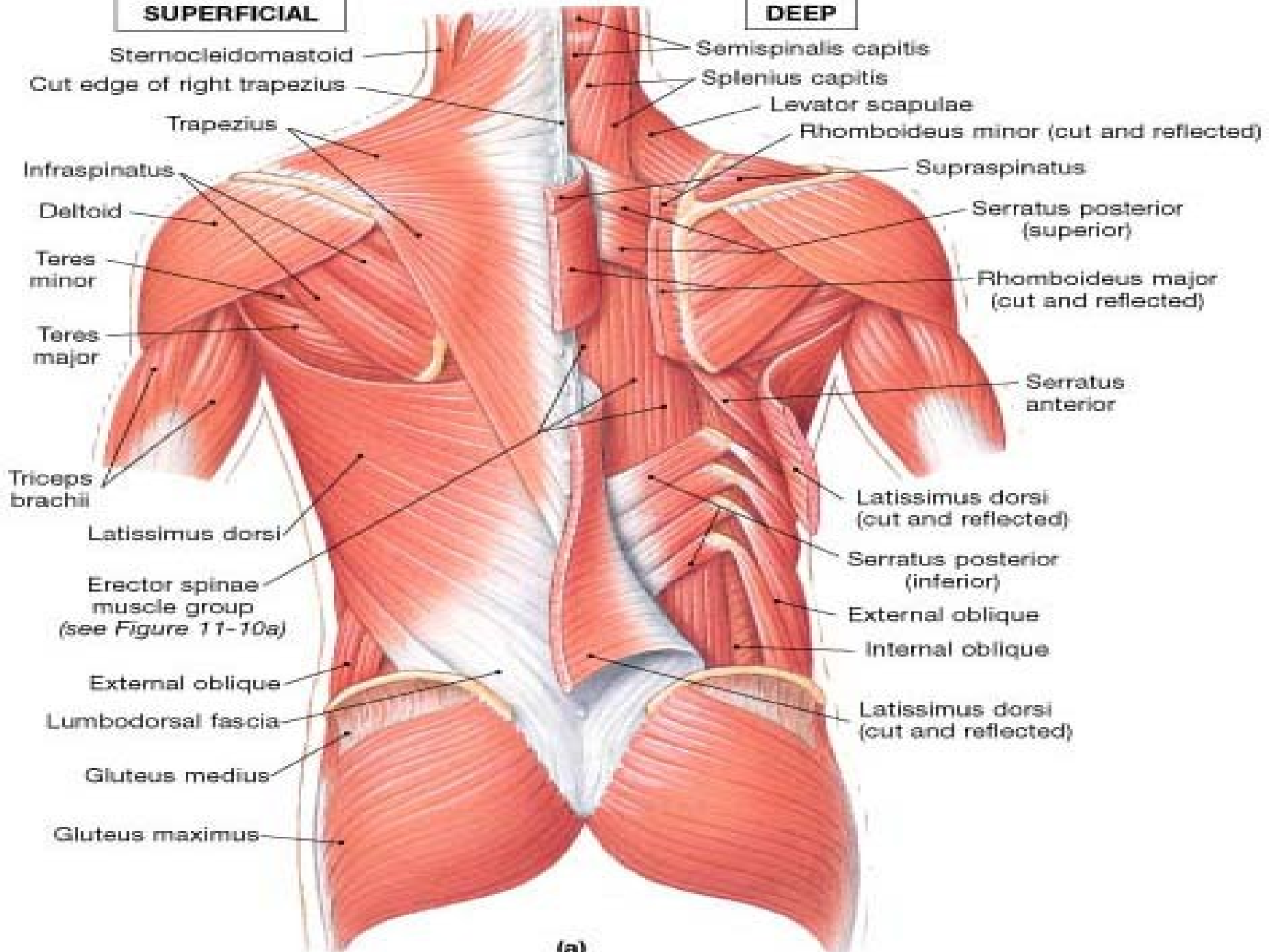
# Superficial Muscles of the Anterior & Posterior Thorax

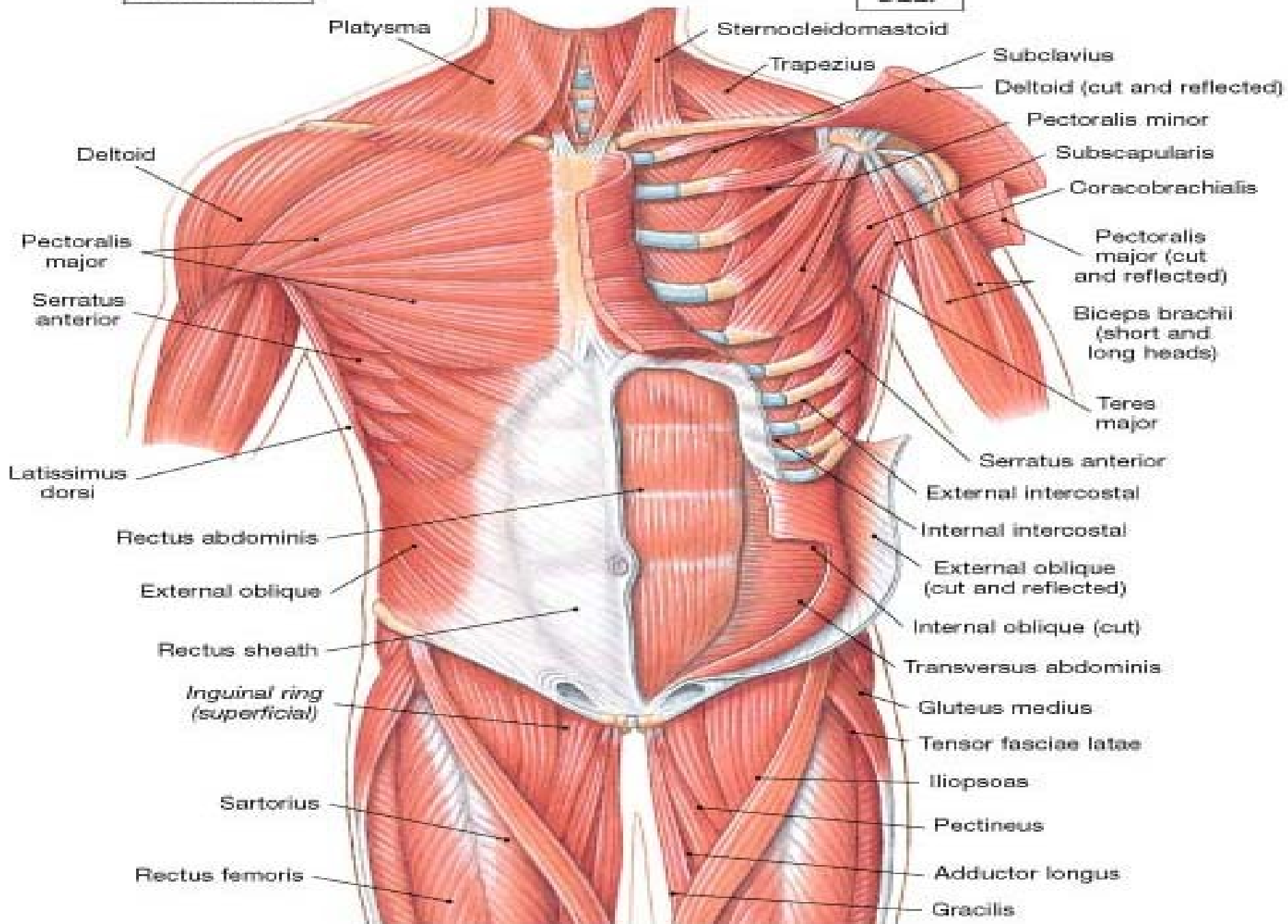
- Most superficial thorax muscles are *extrinsic shoulder muscles*
- **Insertion** - on the ribs and vertebrae
- **Origin** - on the shoulder girdle
- **Action** - to fix the scapula to the wall of the thorax or move the scapula to effect arm movement

# Extrinsic Muscles of the Posterior Thorax

- Trapezius
- Levator scapulae
- Rhomboids major & minor



**SUPERFICIAL****DEEP**

**SUPERFICIAL****DEEP**

# Muscles Crossing the Shoulder Joint: Movement of the Arm

- Of the nine muscles, only the superficial:
  - Pectoralis major
  - Latissimus dorsi
  - Deltoidare prime movers of arm movement.

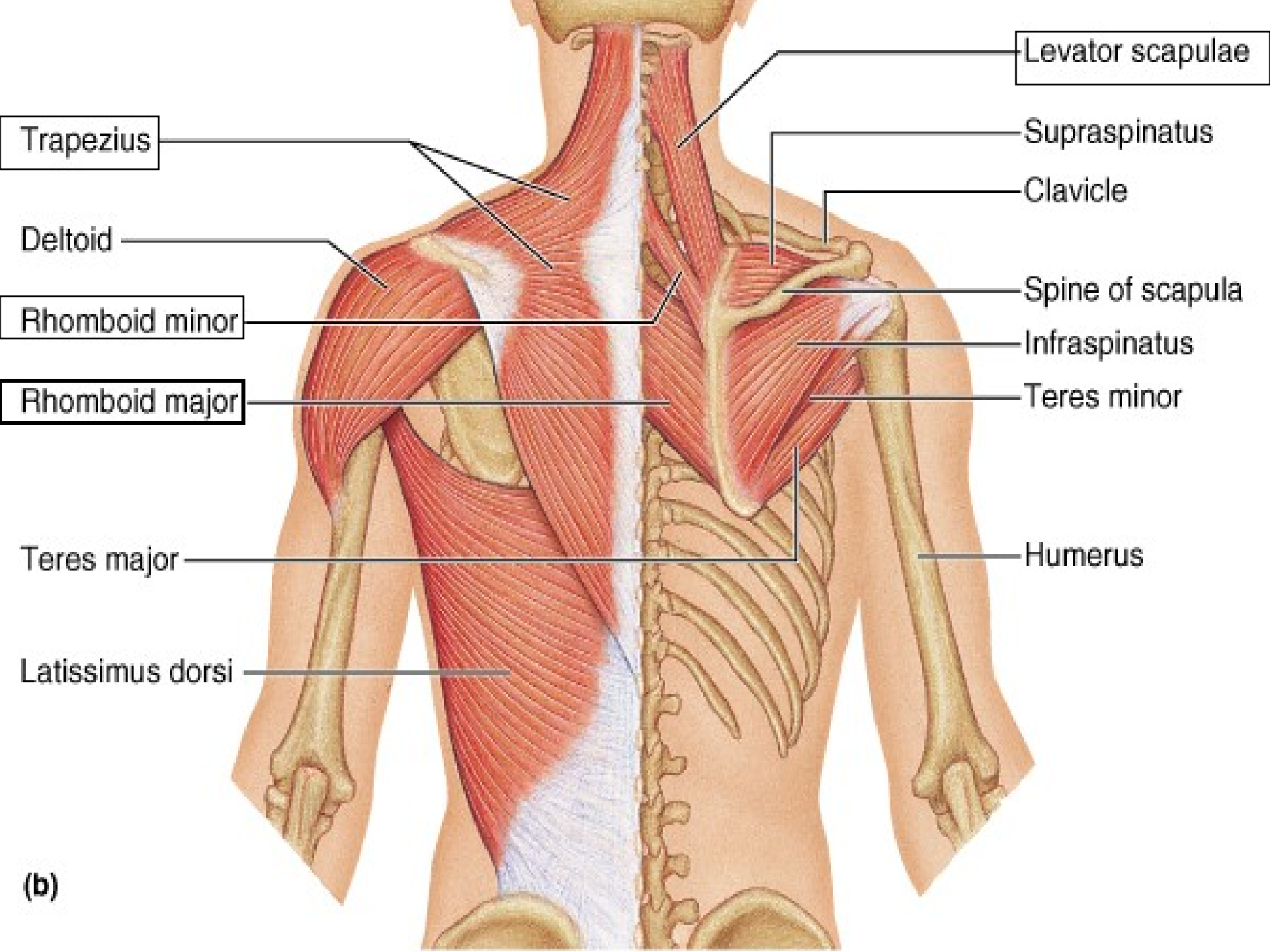
# Muscles Crossing the Shoulder Joint: Movement of the Arm

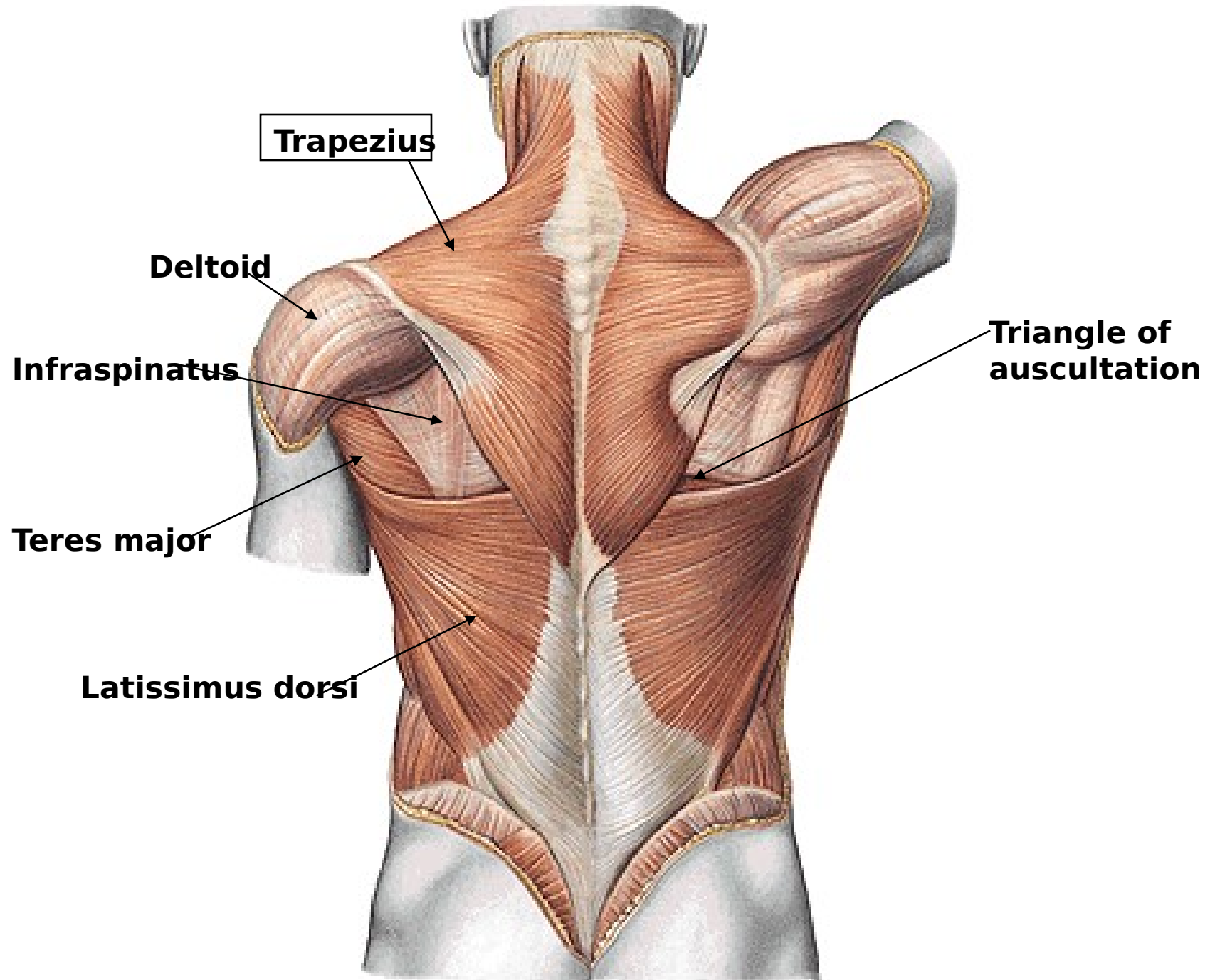
- Four muscles:
  - supraspinatus
  - infraspinatus
  - teres minor
  - subscapularisare rotator cuff muscles.

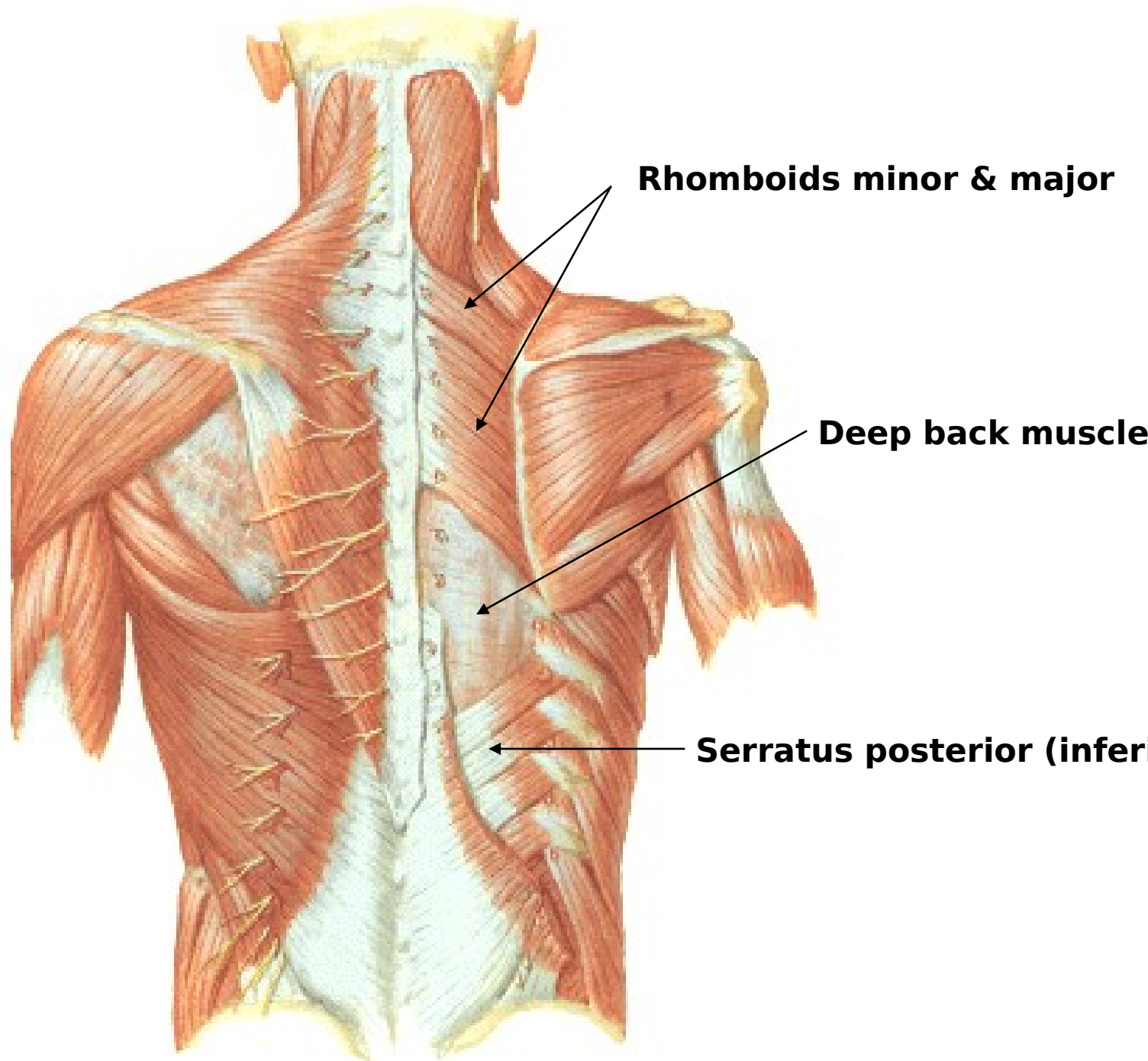
# Muscles Crossing the Shoulder Joint: Movement of the Arm

- The two remaining muscles:
  - teres major
  - coracobrachialis

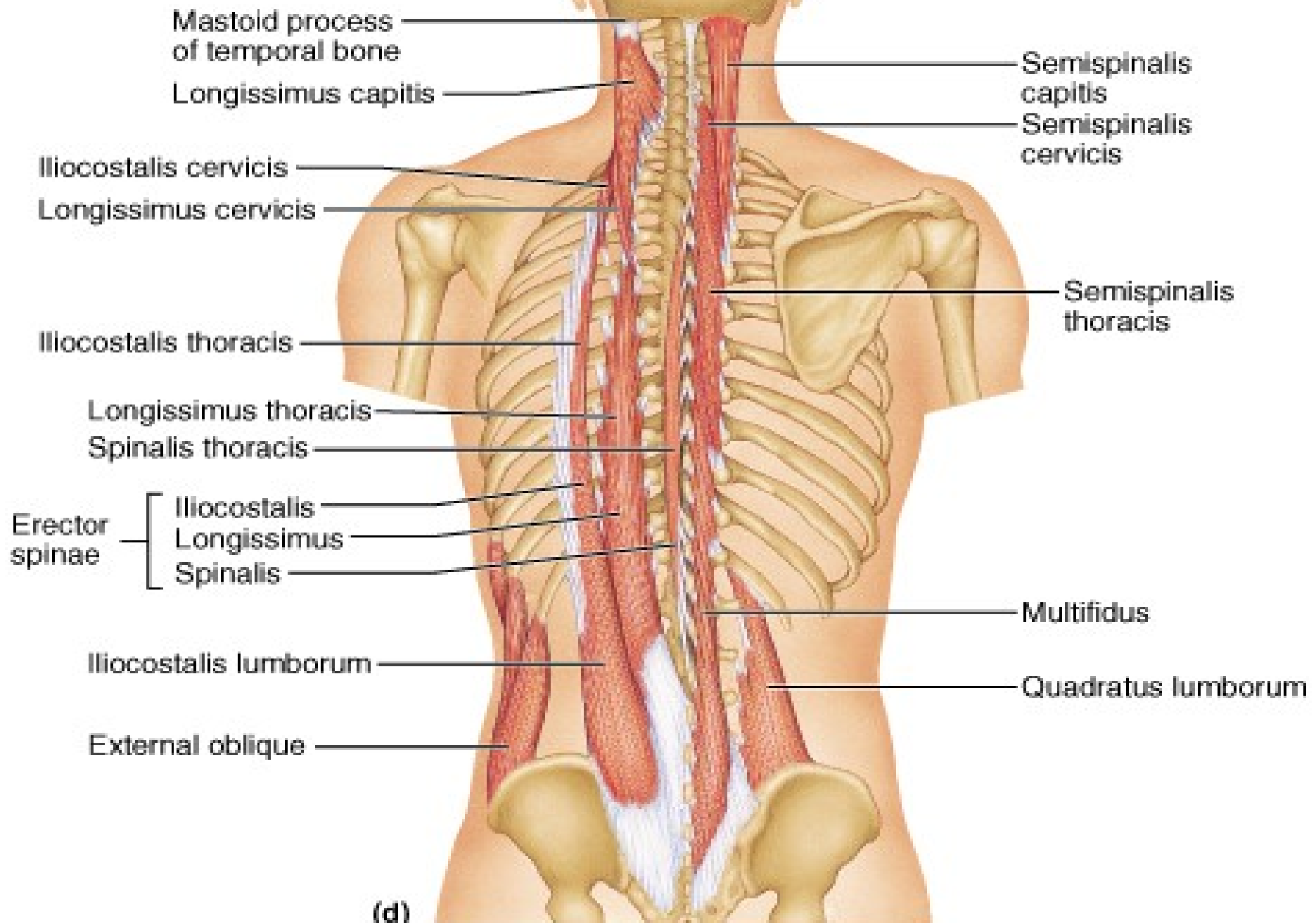
crosses the shoulder joint but  
insert on to the humerus to  
move the upper arm.

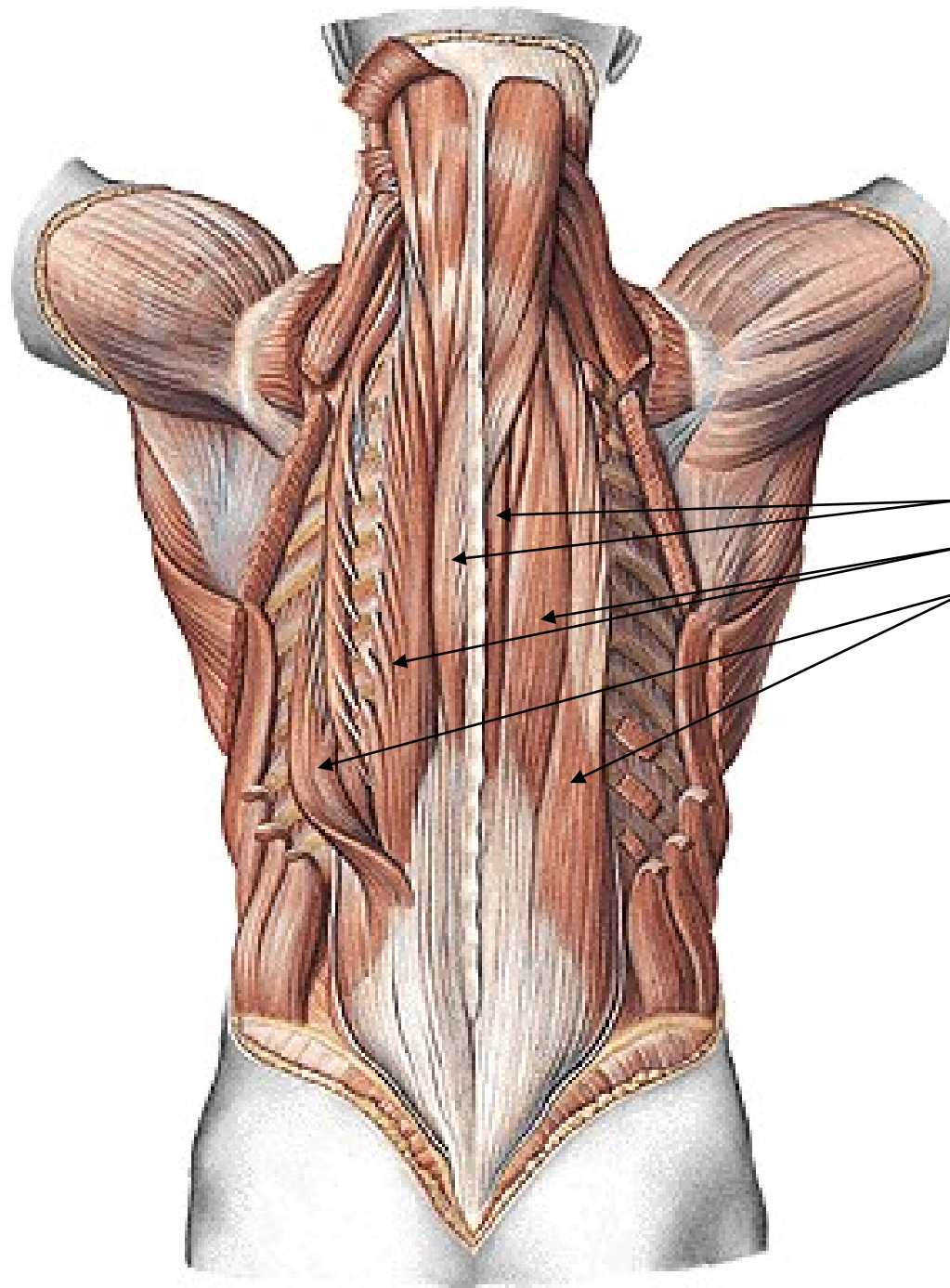










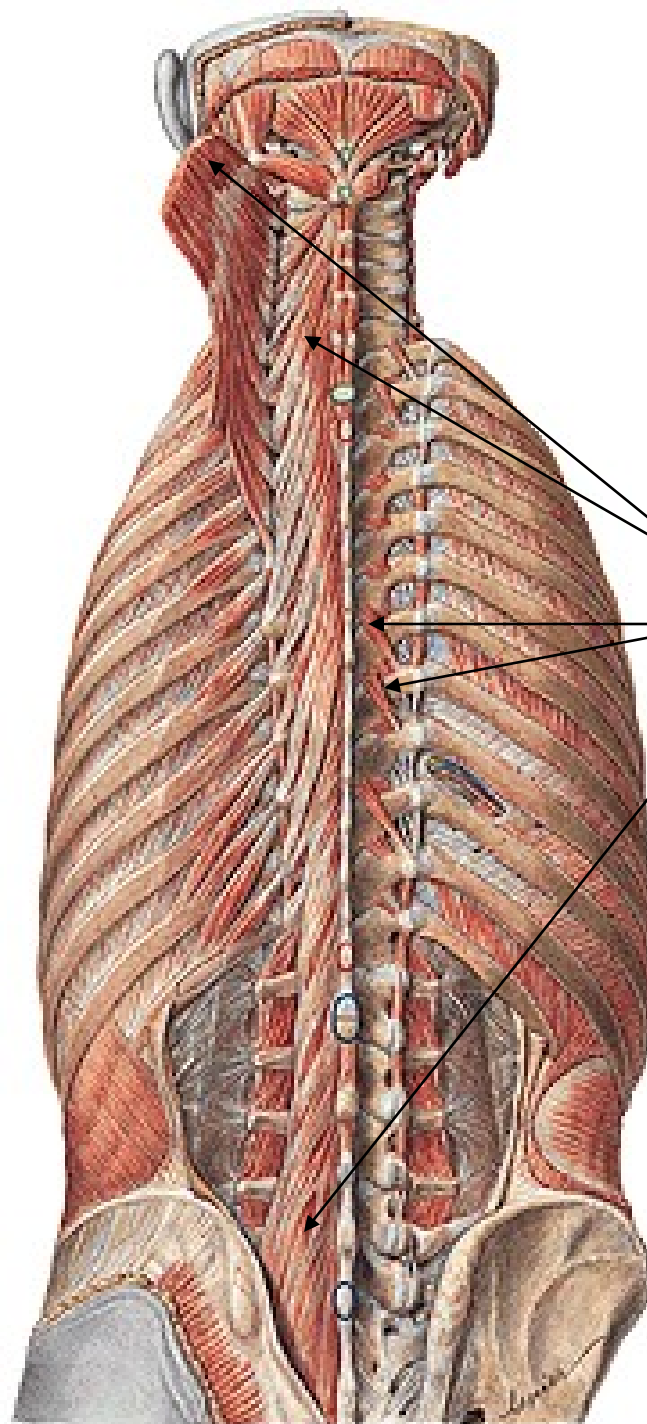


**Erector spinae column**

- 1) Spinalis**
- 2) Longissimus**
- 3) Iliocostalis**

# DEEP (INTRINSIC) MUSCLES

- Erector spinae group
  - Iliocostalis m
  - Longissimus m
  - Spinalis m
- Transversospinalis group
  - Semispinalis m
  - Multifidus m
  - Rotatores m



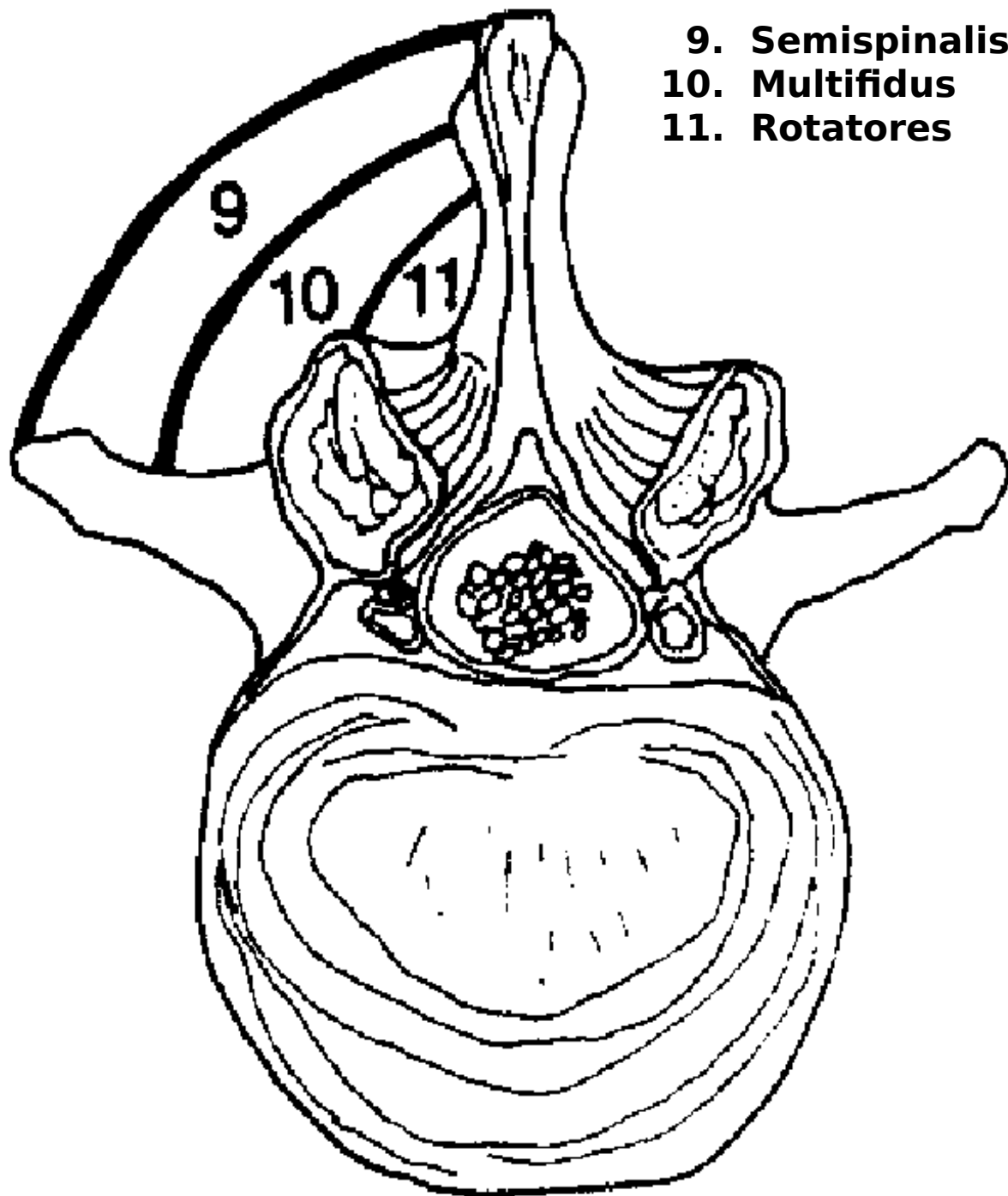
**Transversospinalis group**

**1) Semispinalis**

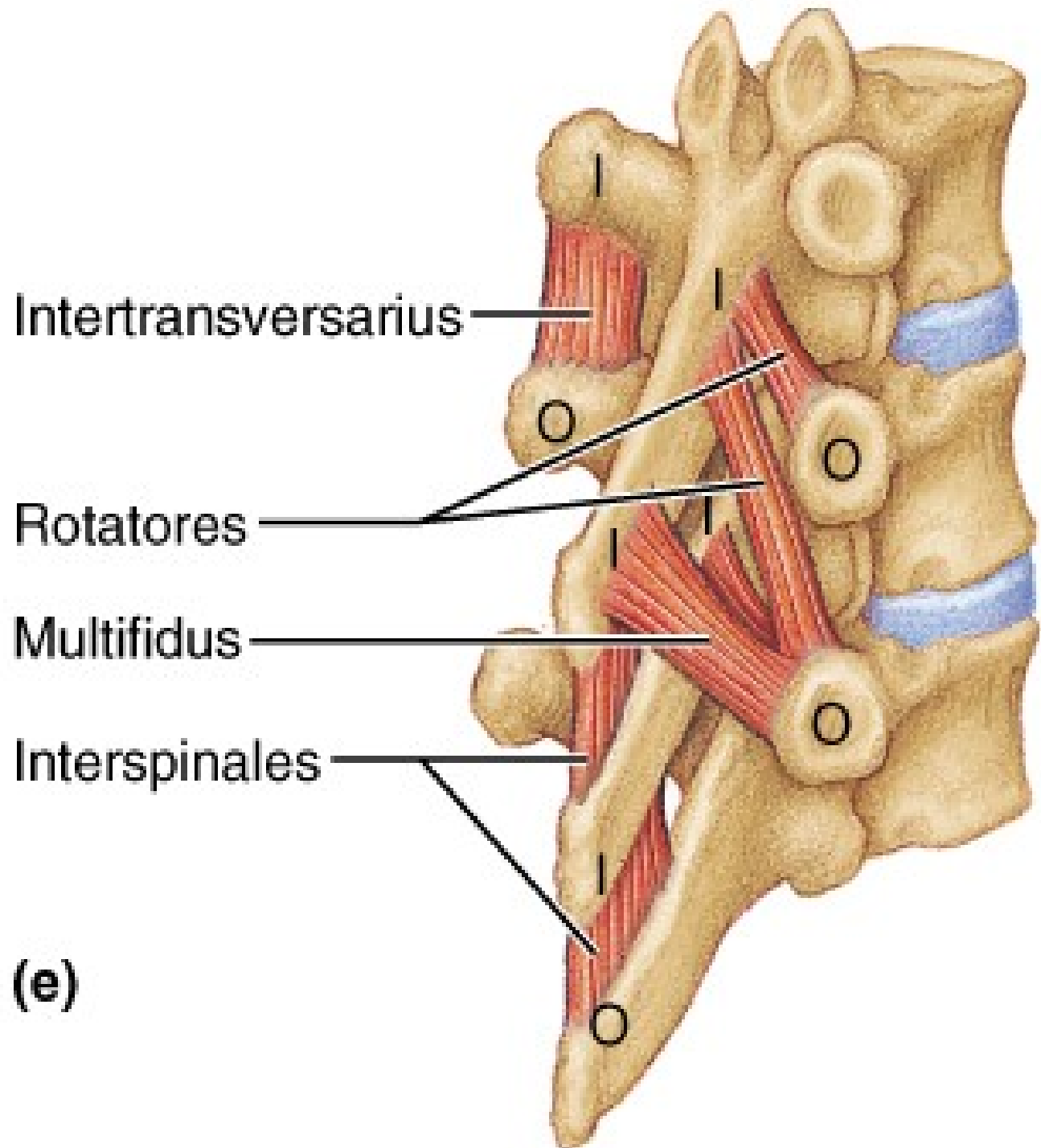
**2) Rotatores**

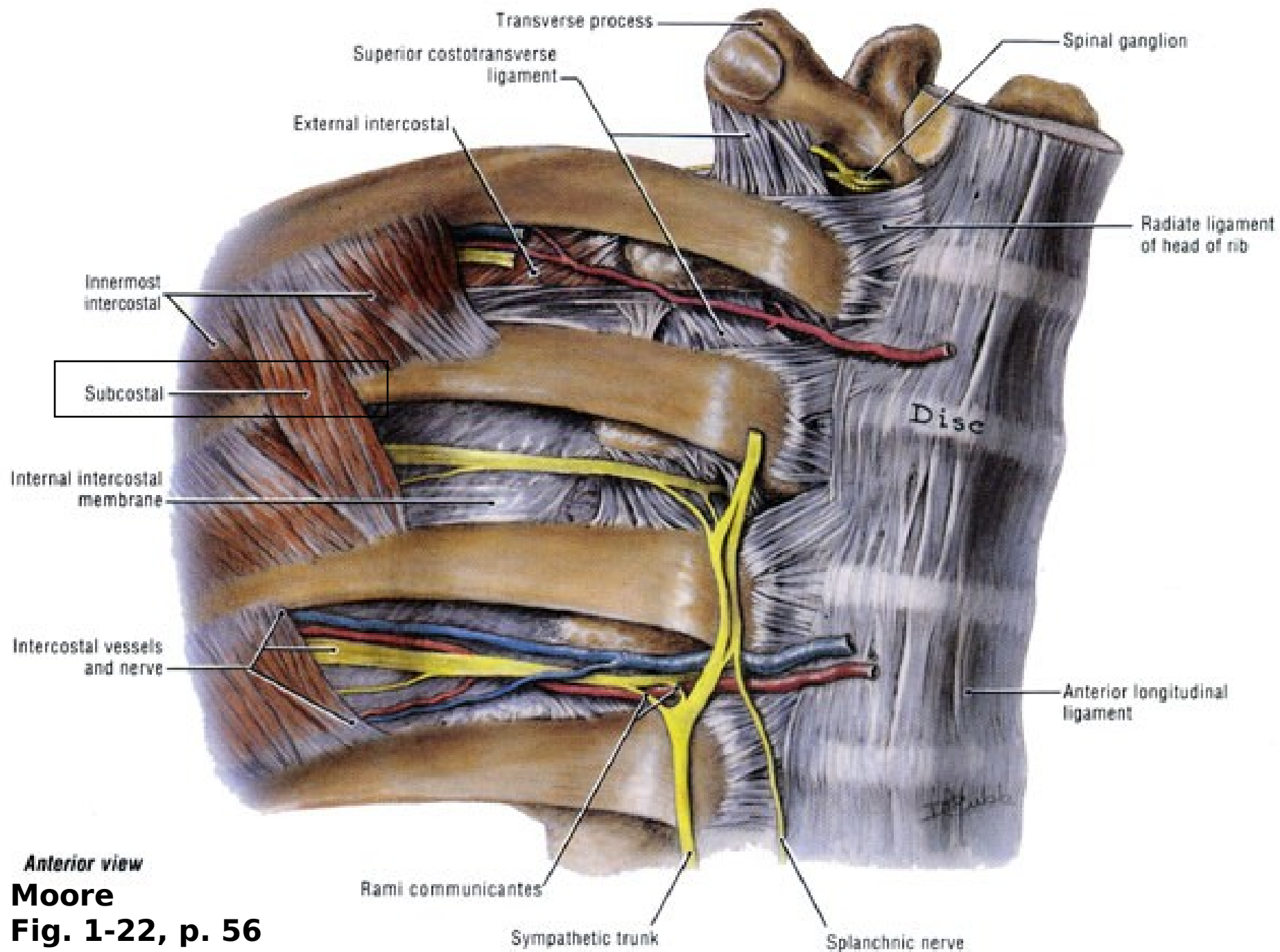
**3) Multifidus**

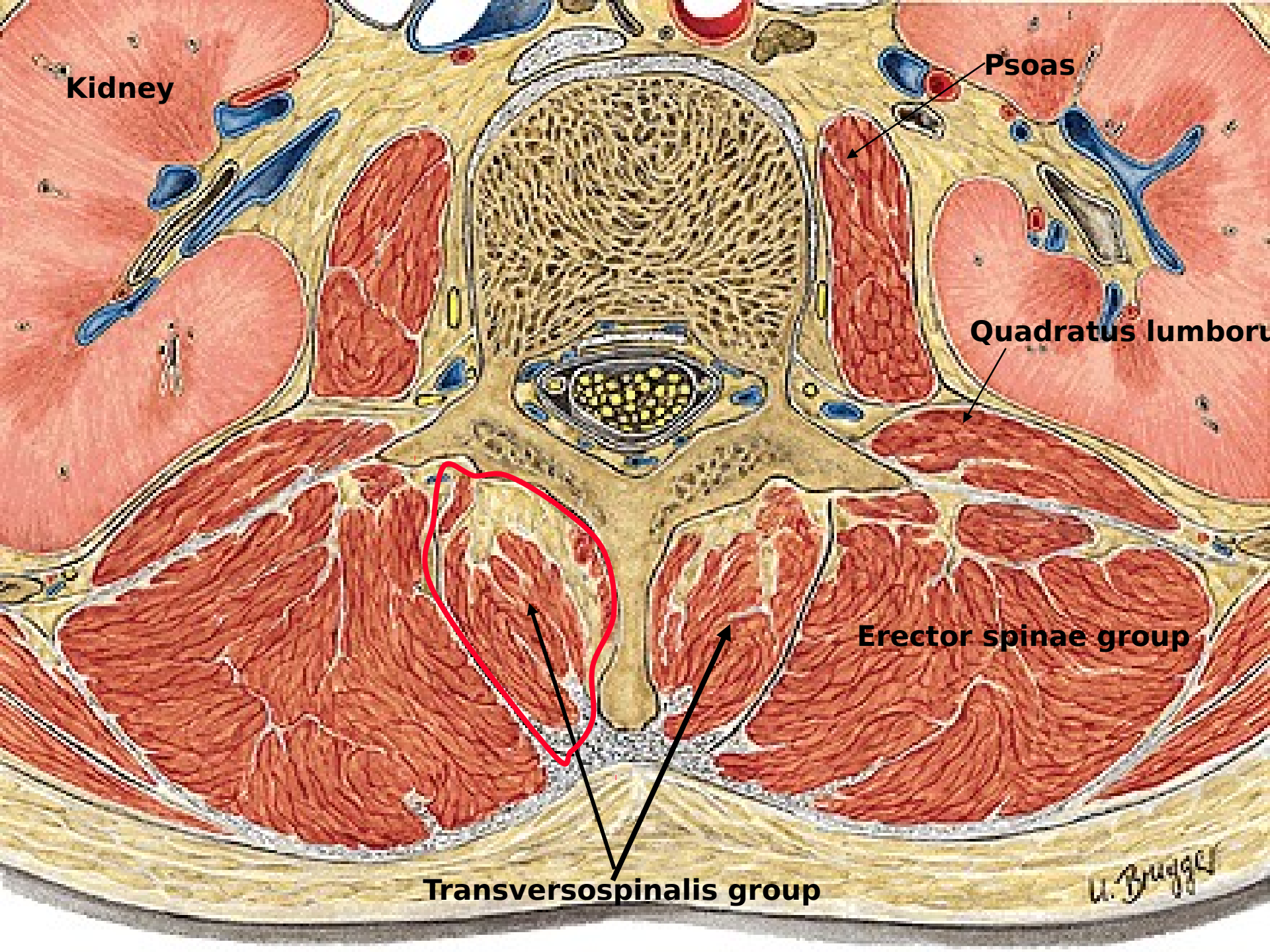
- 9. Semispinalis
- 10. Multifidus
- 11. Rotatores



O = origin  
I = insertion







**Kidney**

**Psoas**

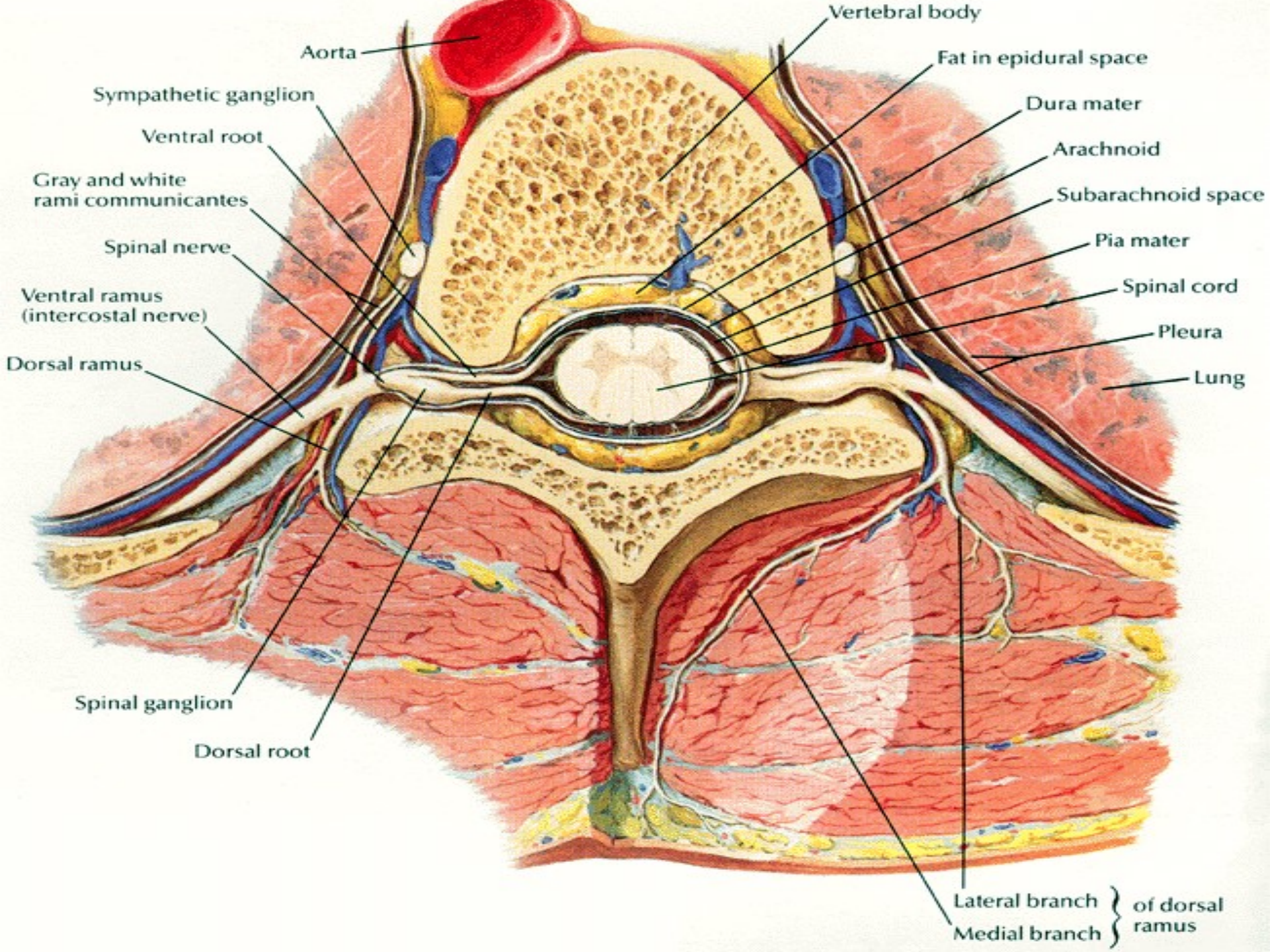
**Quadratus lumborum**

**Erector spinae group**

**Transversospinalis group**

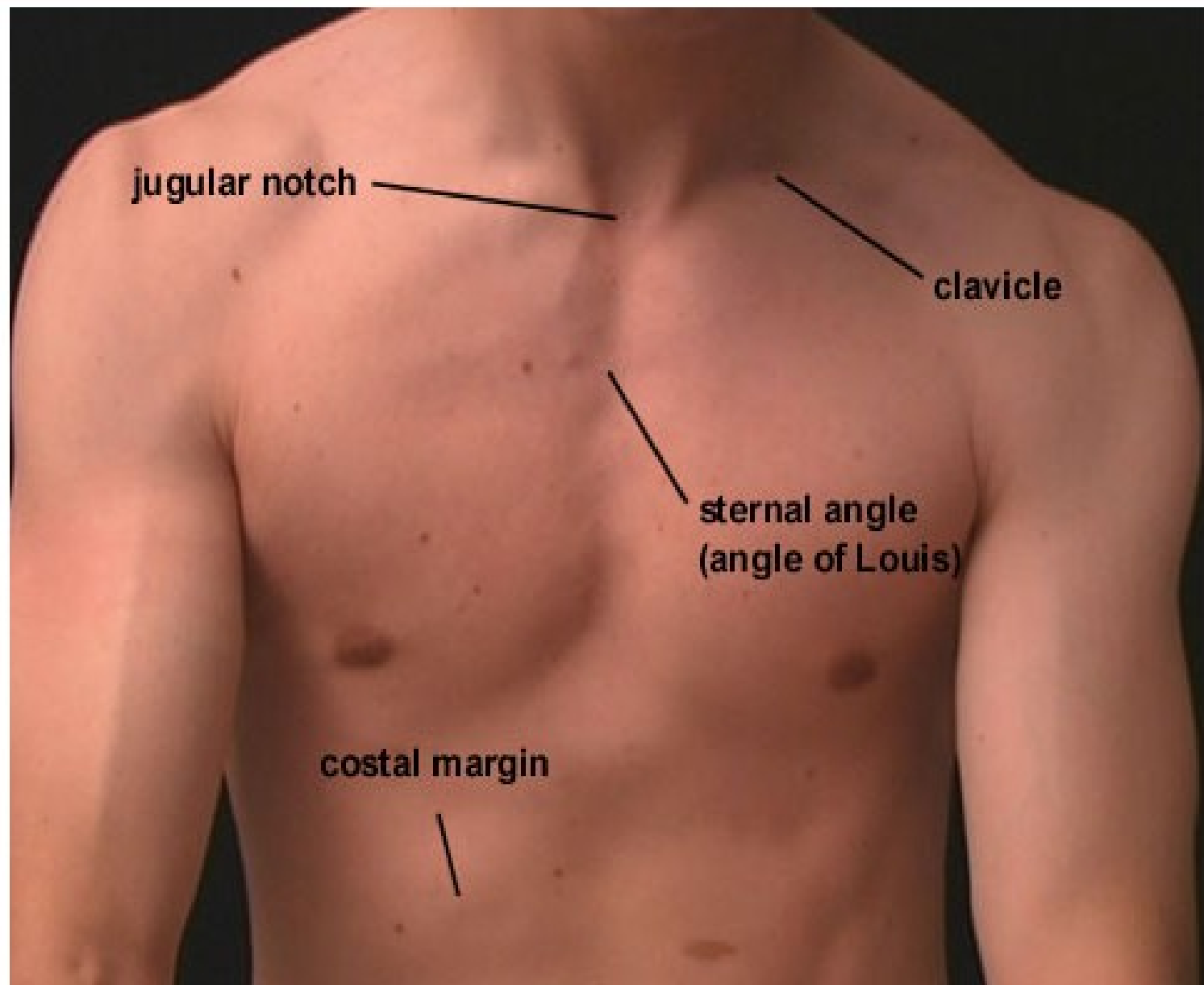
*U. Brugger*



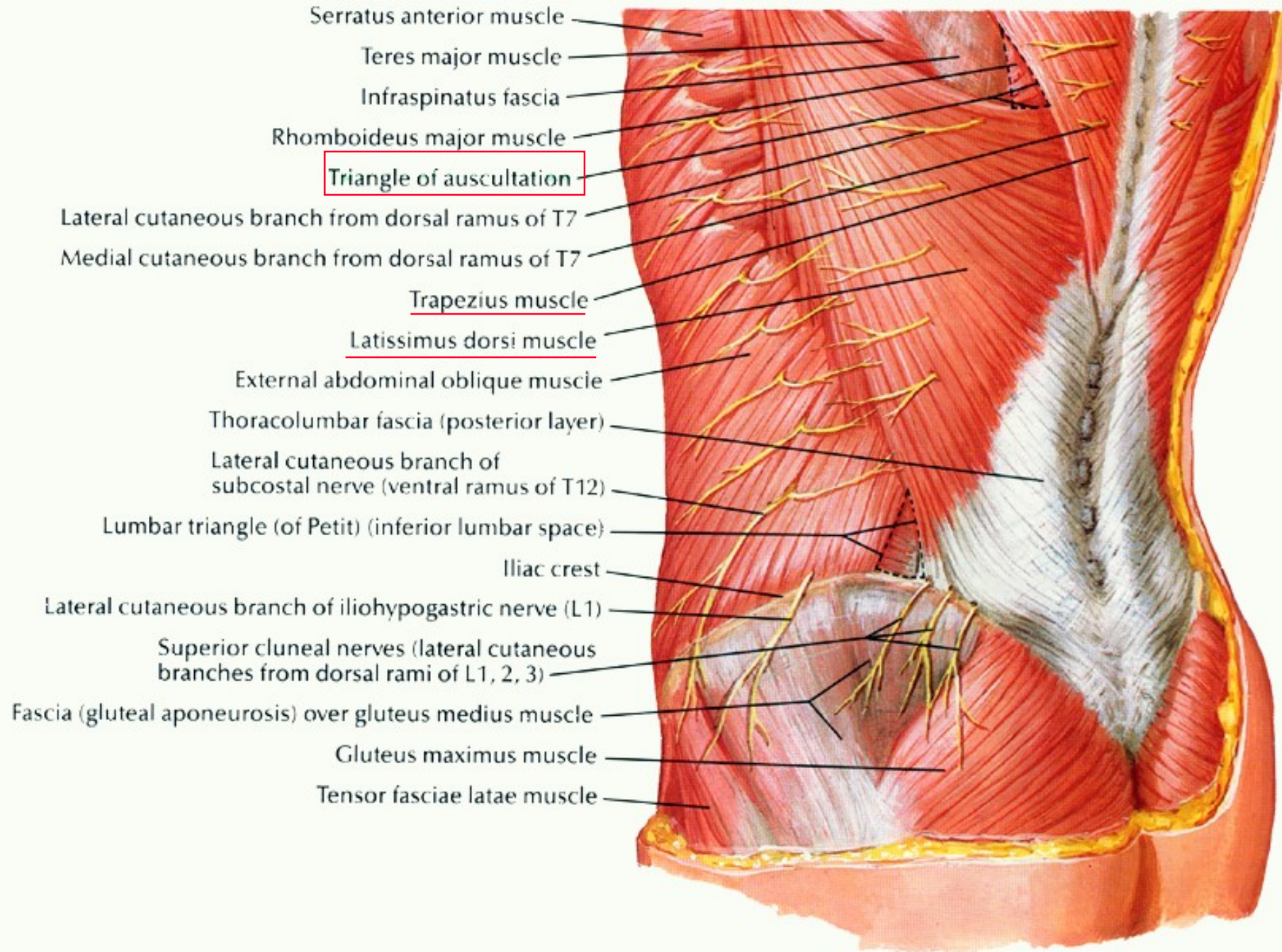


# TRUNK MUSCLES: THORAX

## Surface Anatomy: Thorax



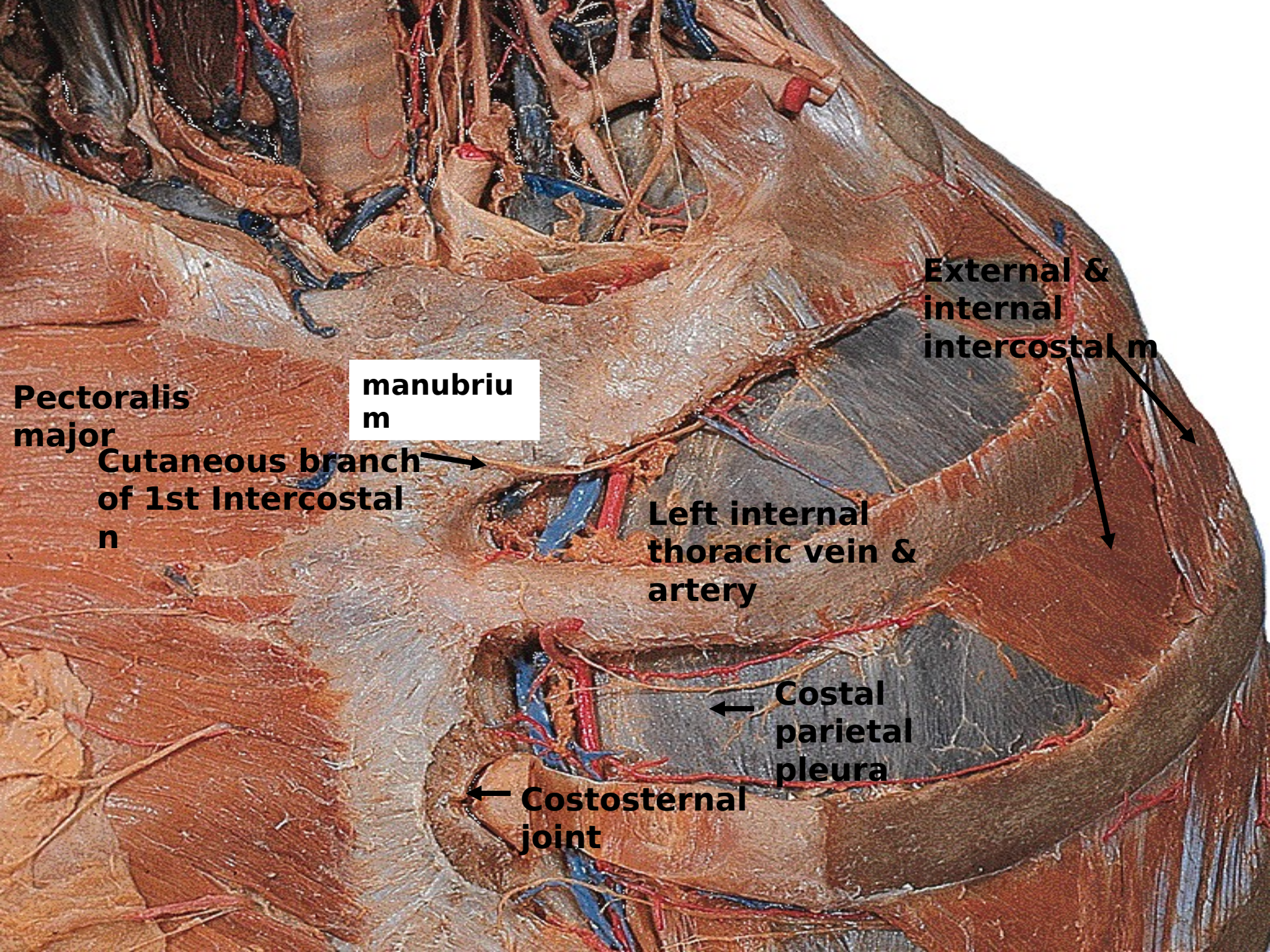




# Extrinsic Muscles of the Anterior Thorax

- Pectoralis major & minor
- Serratus anterior
- Subclavius





**Pectoralis  
major**

**manubriu  
m**

**Cutaneous branch  
of 1st Intercostal  
n**

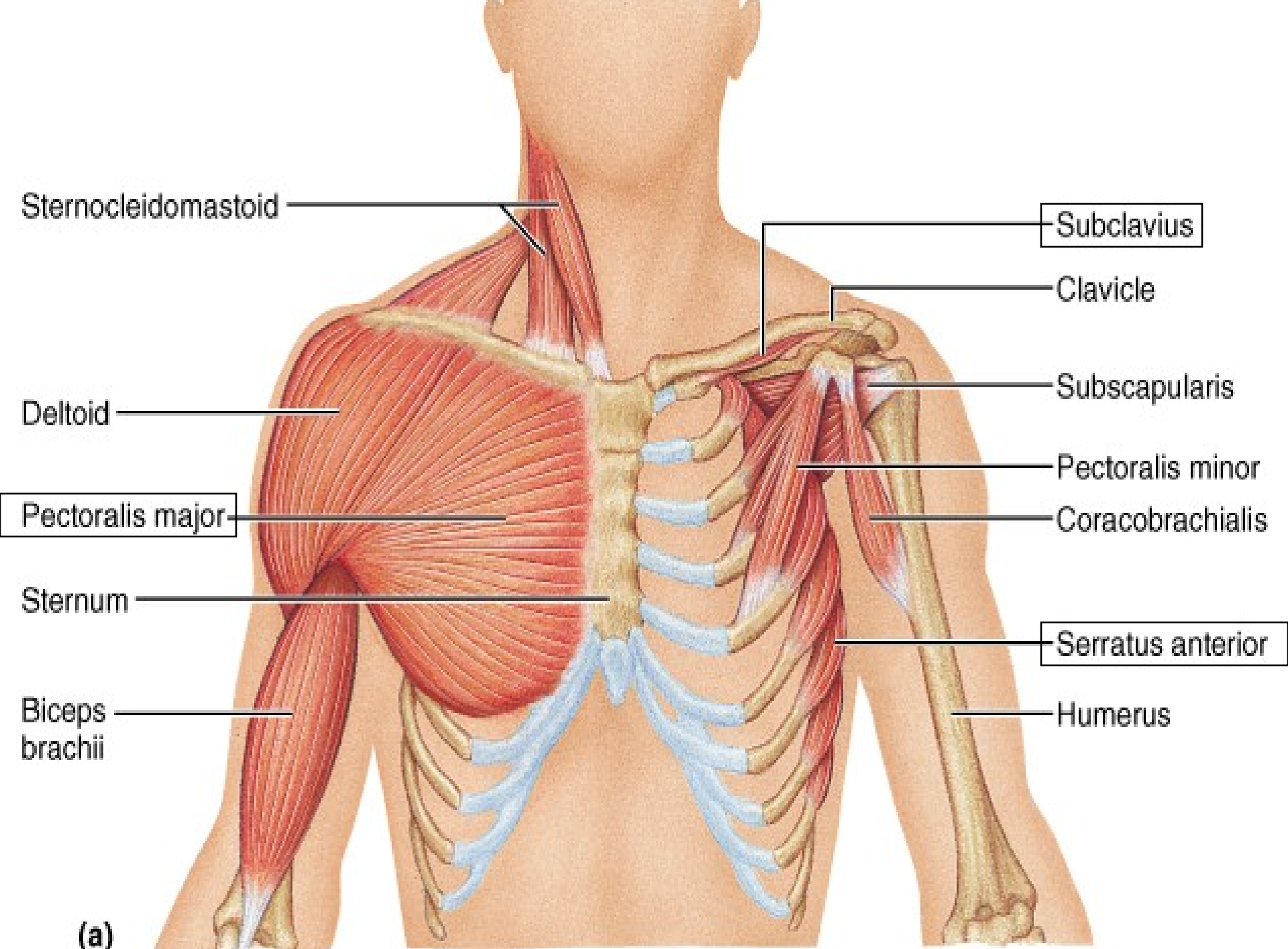
**Left internal  
thoracic vein &  
artery**

**External &  
internal  
intercostal m**

**Costal  
parietal  
pleura**

**Costosternal  
joint**

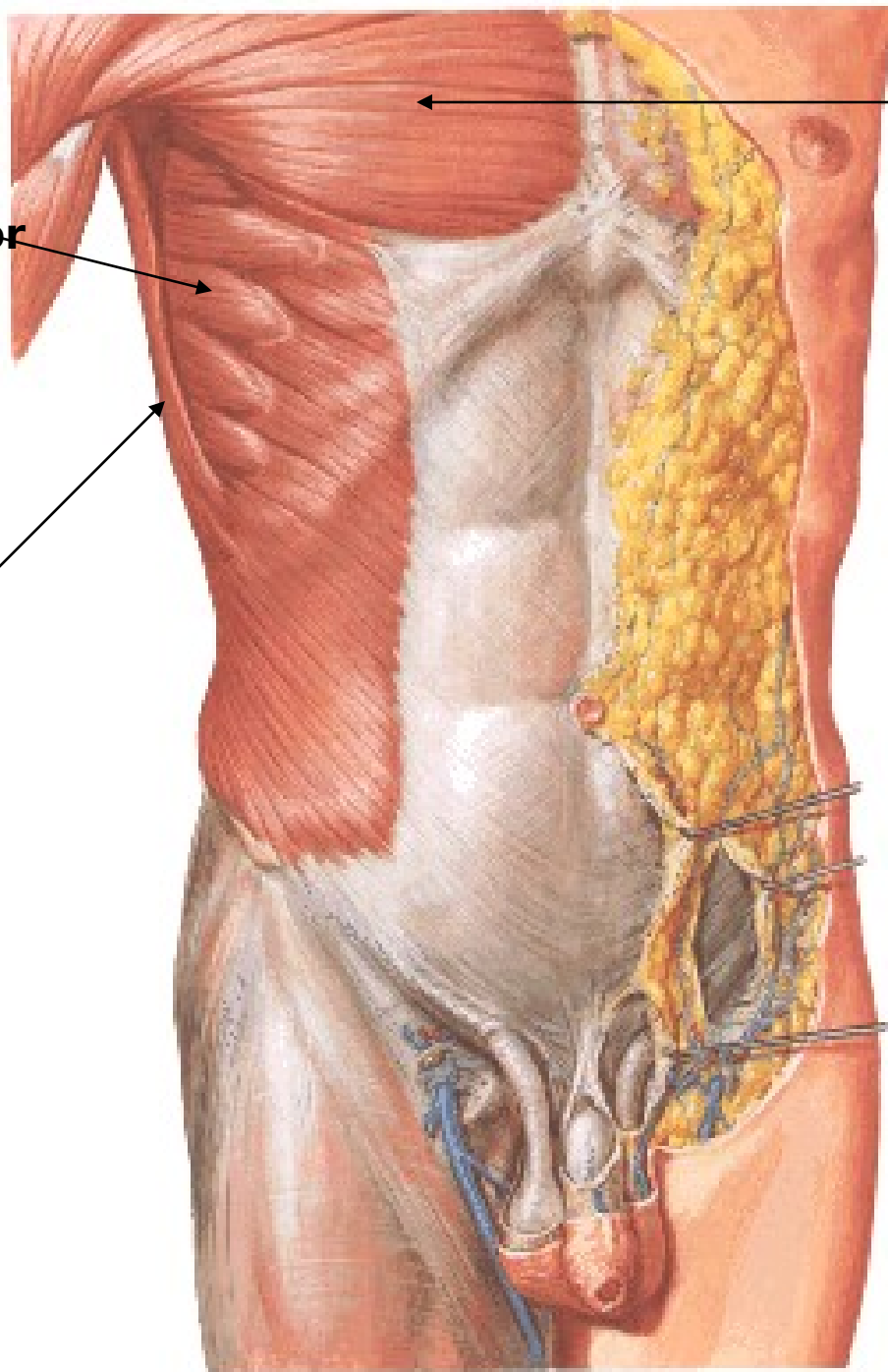




**Serratus anterior**

**Latissimus dorsi**

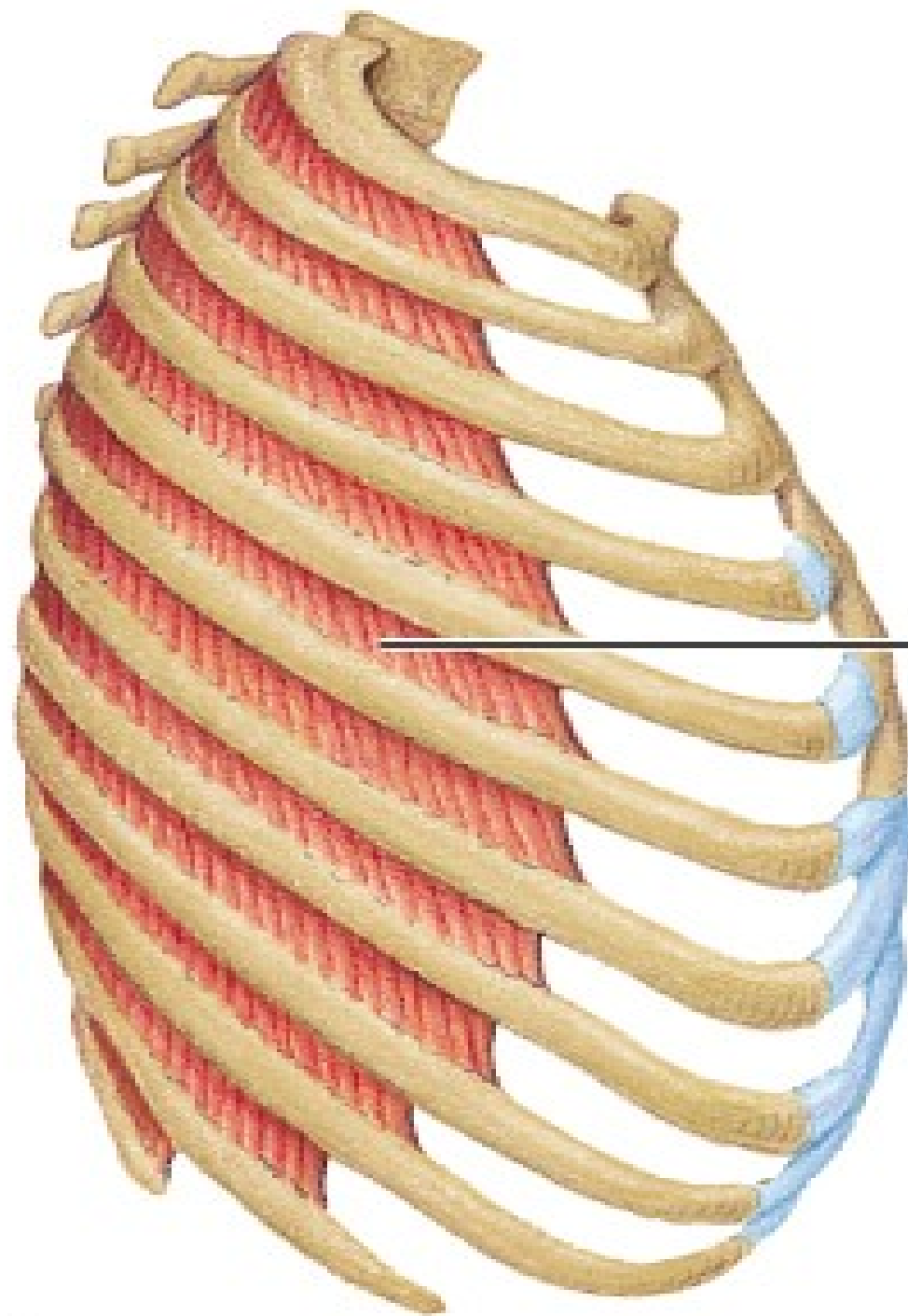
**Trapezius**





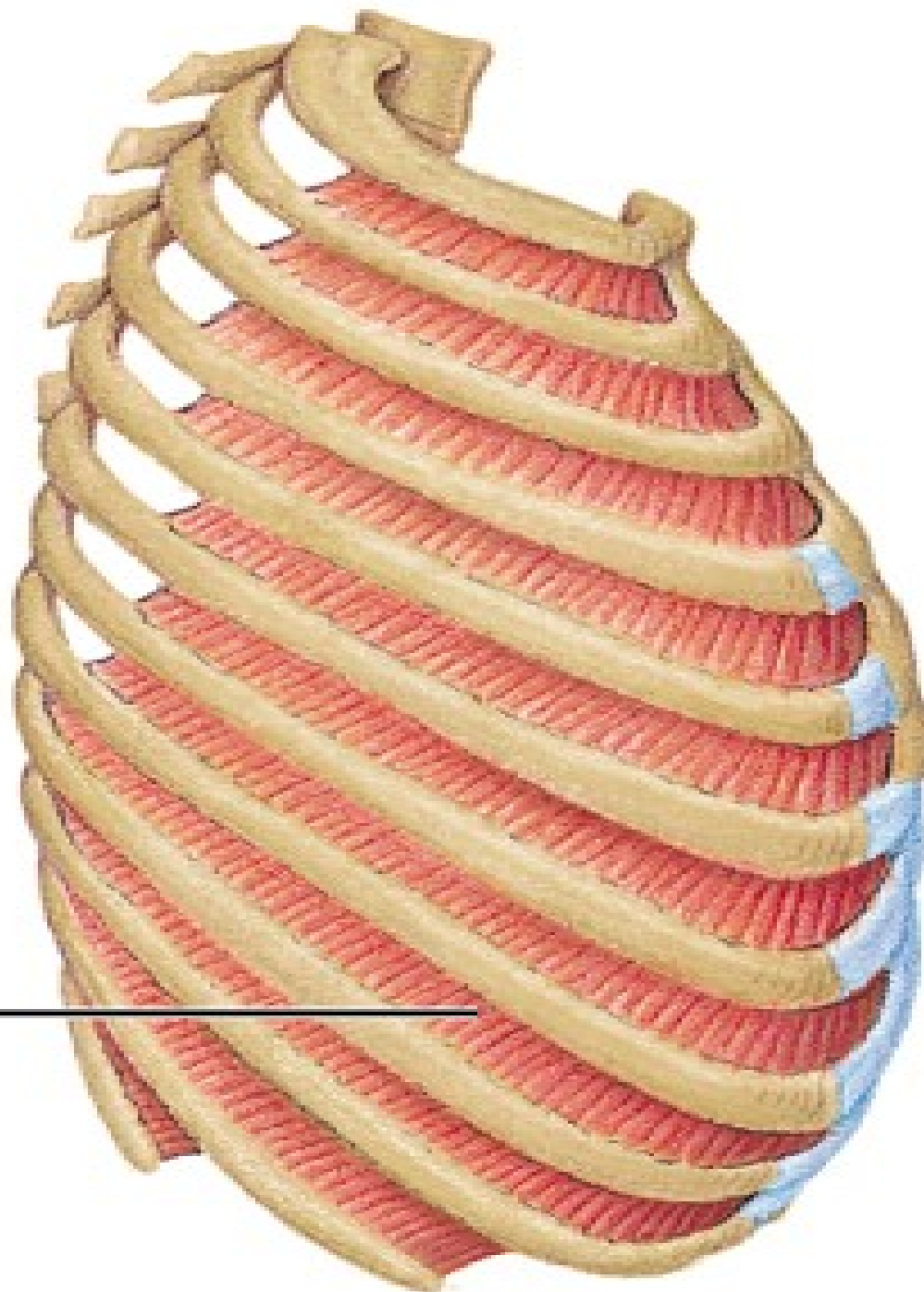
# INTERCOSTAL MUSCLES

- External intercostal m
- Internal intercostal m
- Innermost intercostal m
- Transversus thoracis m
- Subcostal m

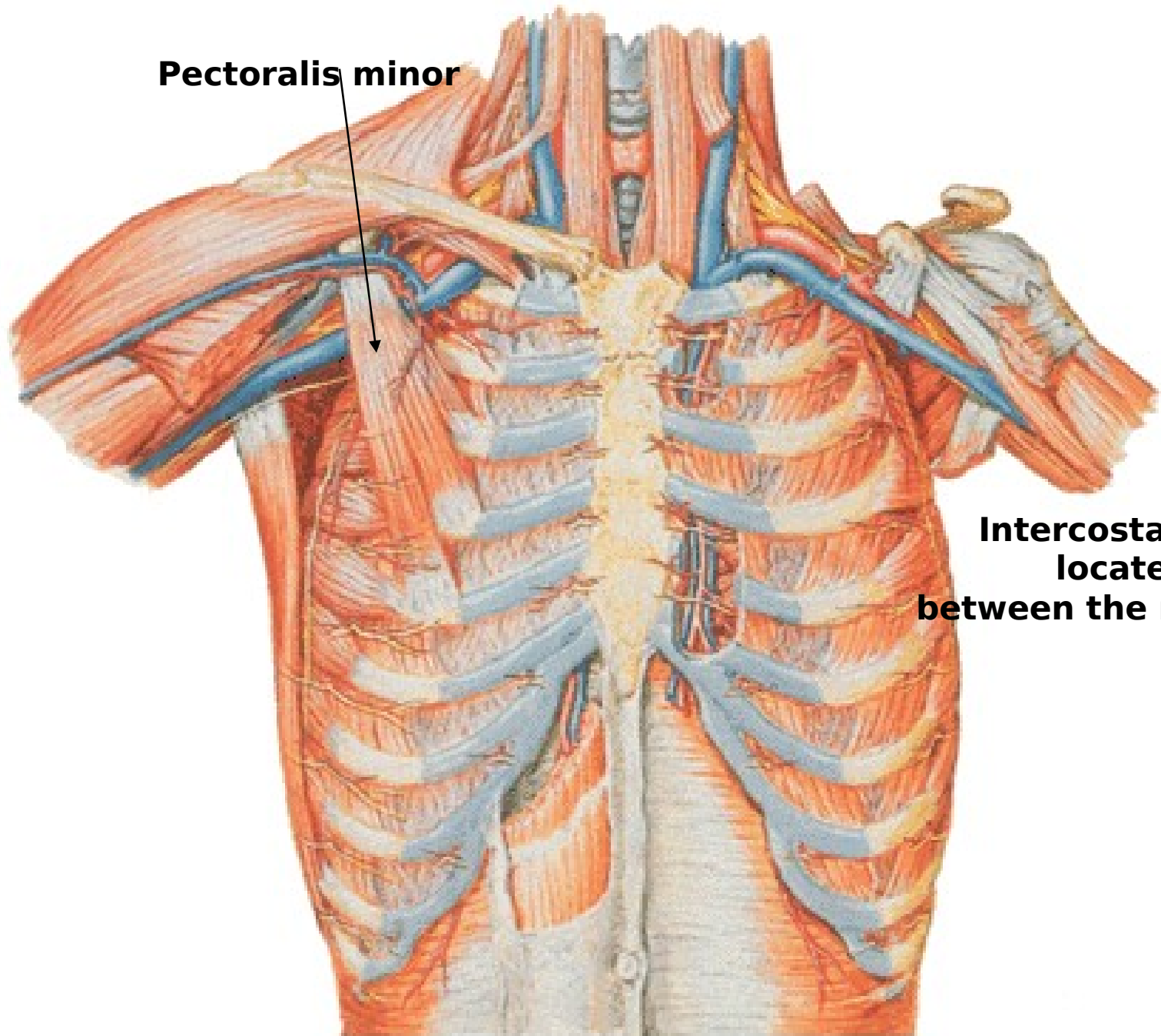


External  
intercostal

Internal  
intercostal

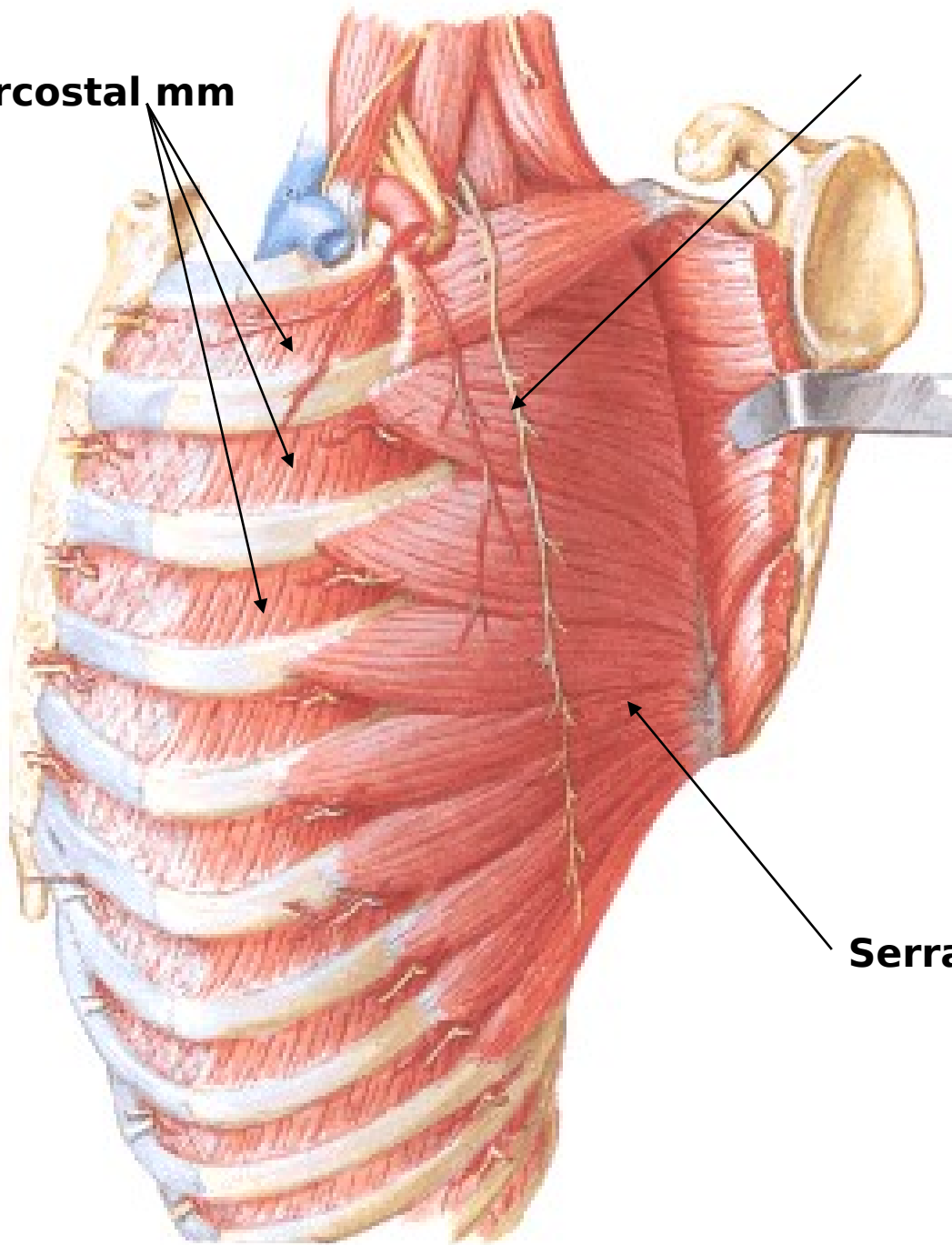


**Pectoralis minor**



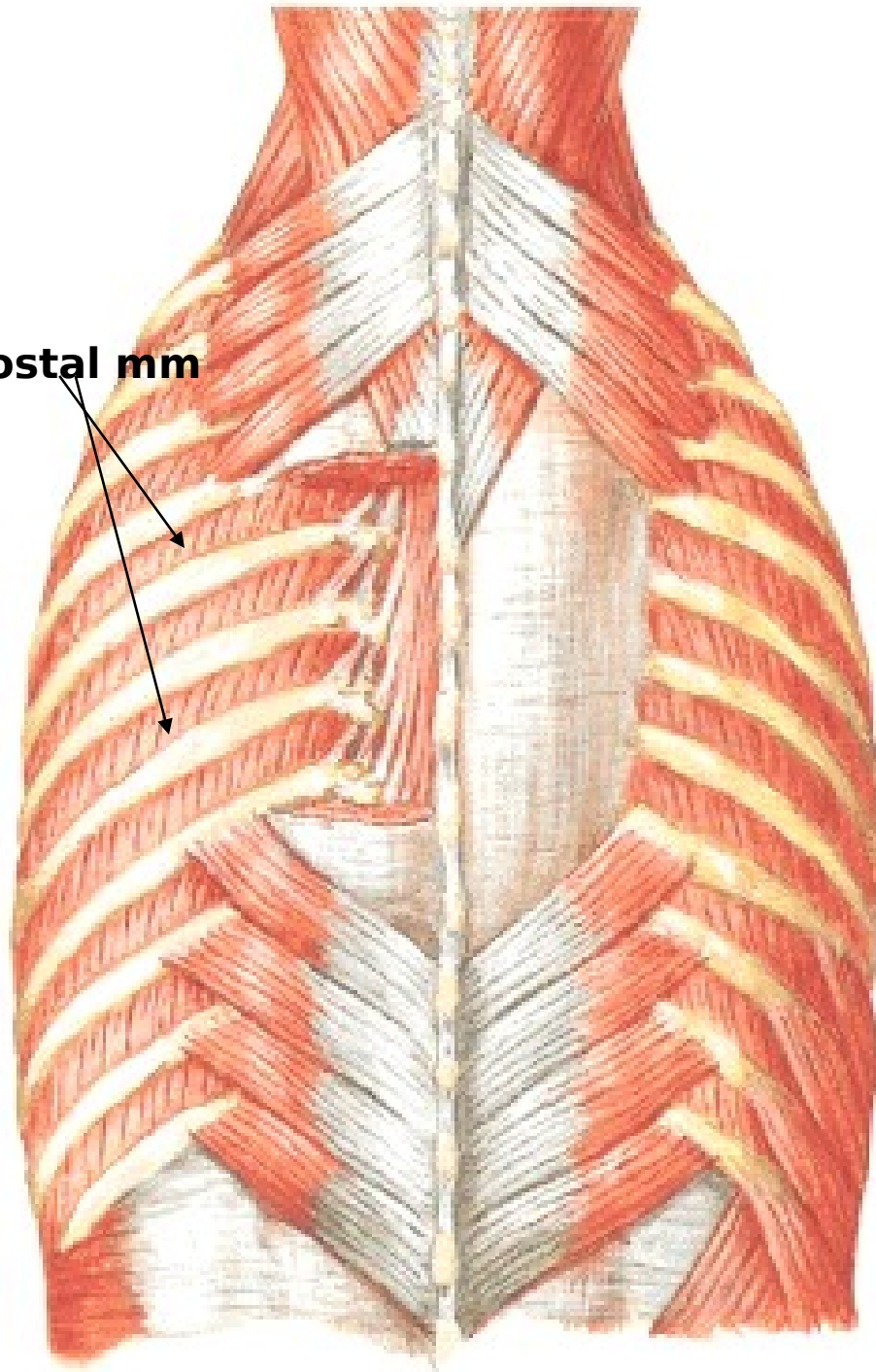
**Intercostal mm  
located  
between the rib bones**

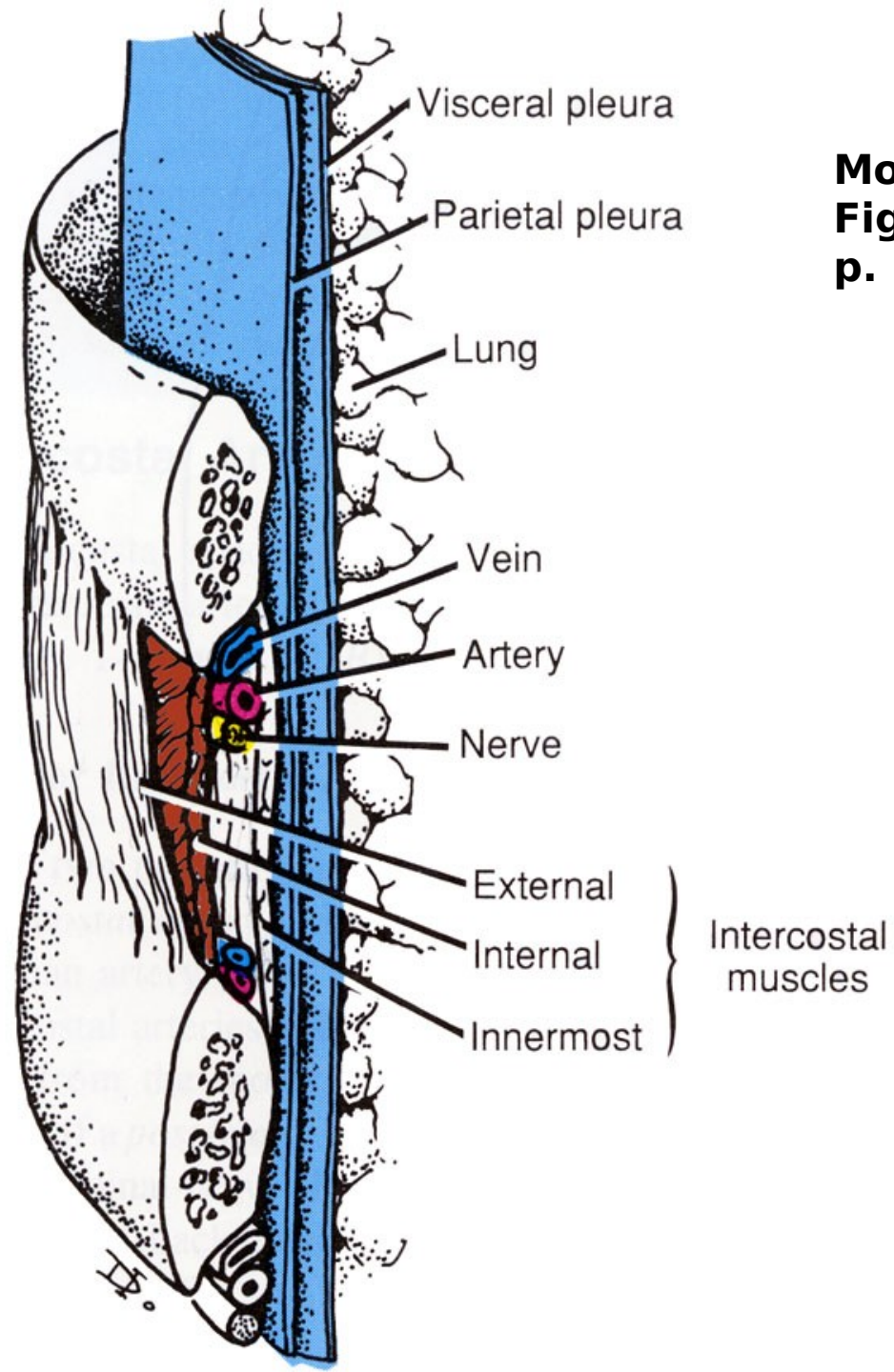
**External intercostal mm**



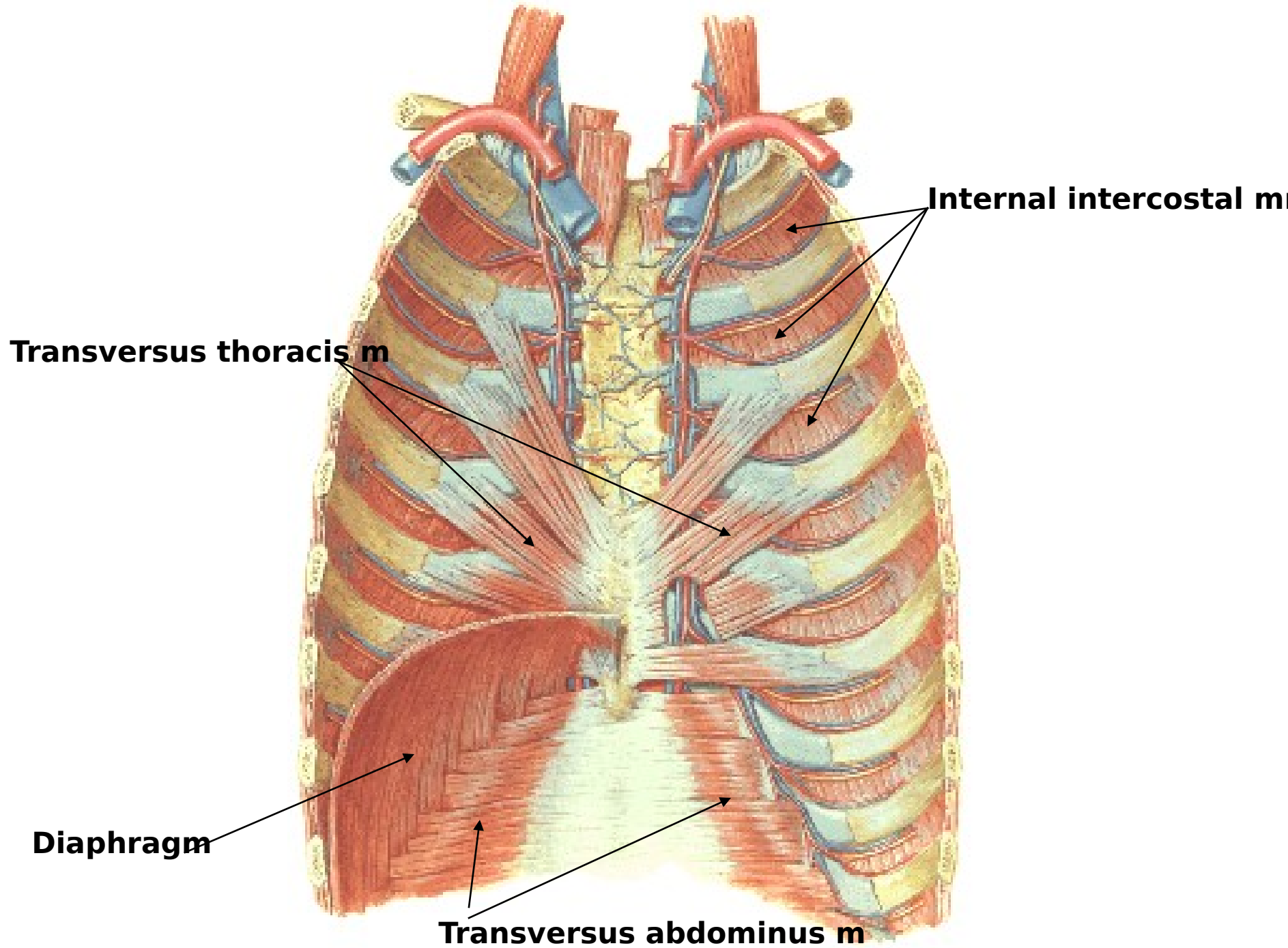
**Serratus anterior**

**External intercostal mm**

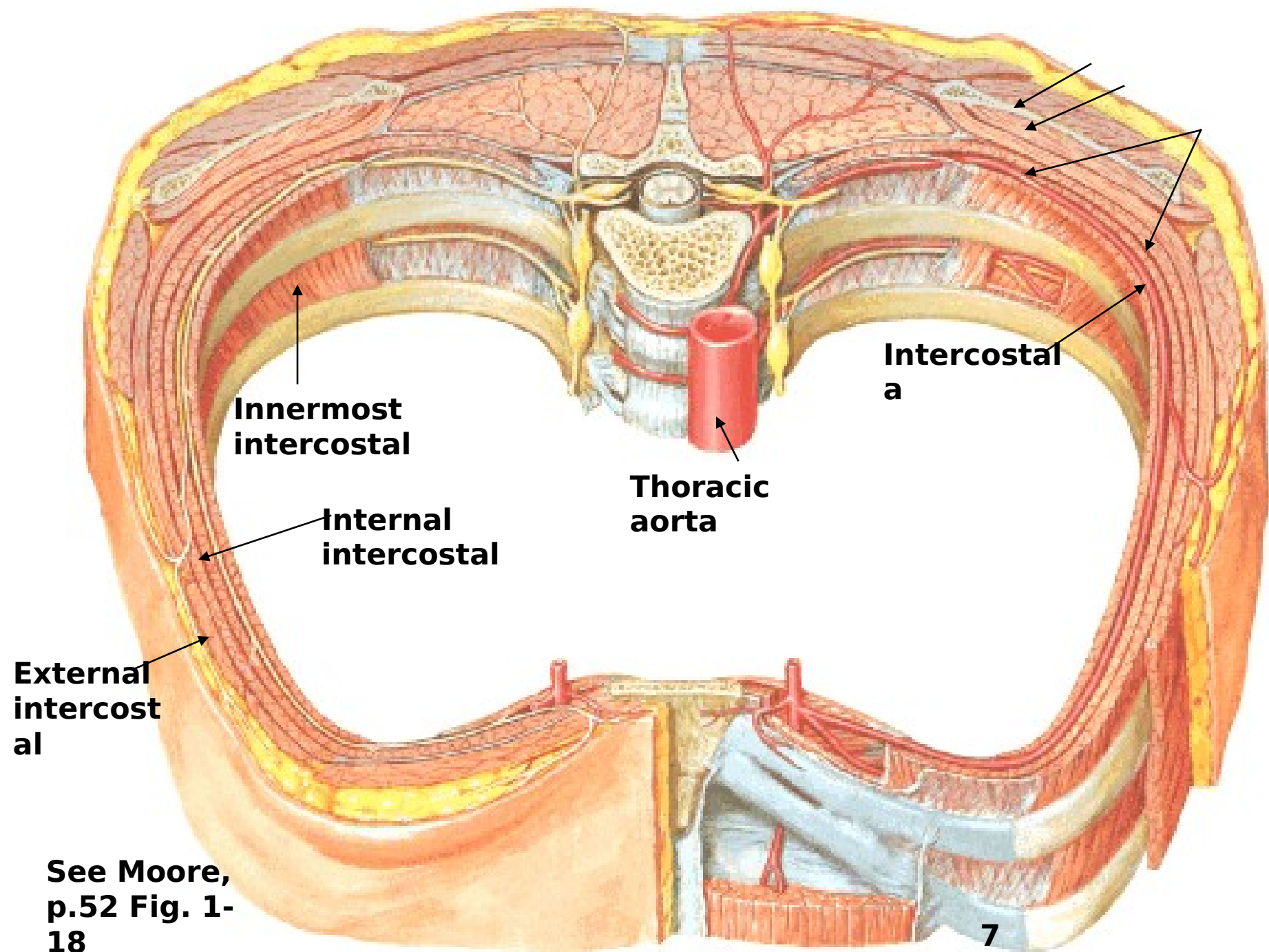




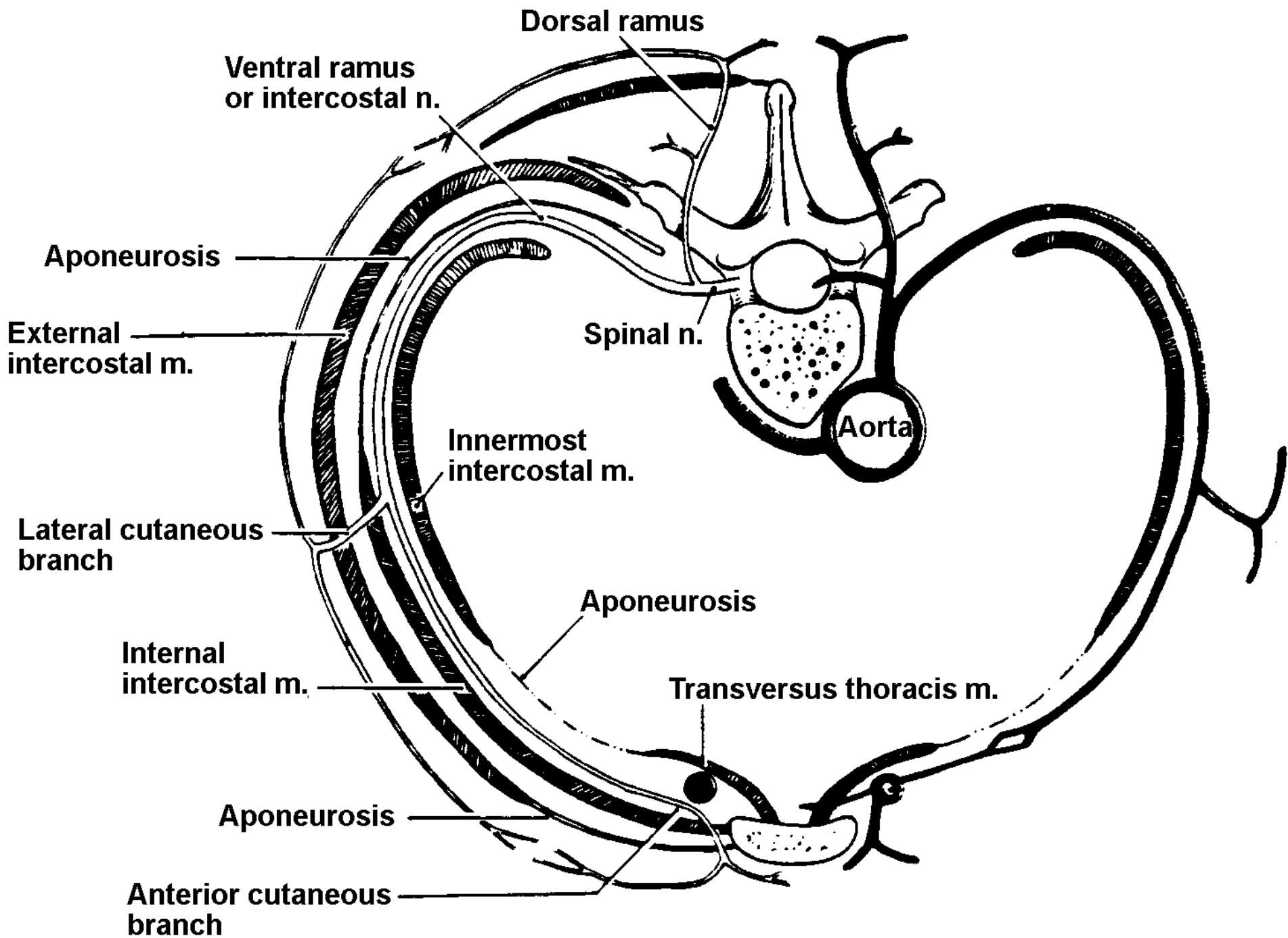
**Moore**  
**Fig. 1-23b**  
**p. 57**

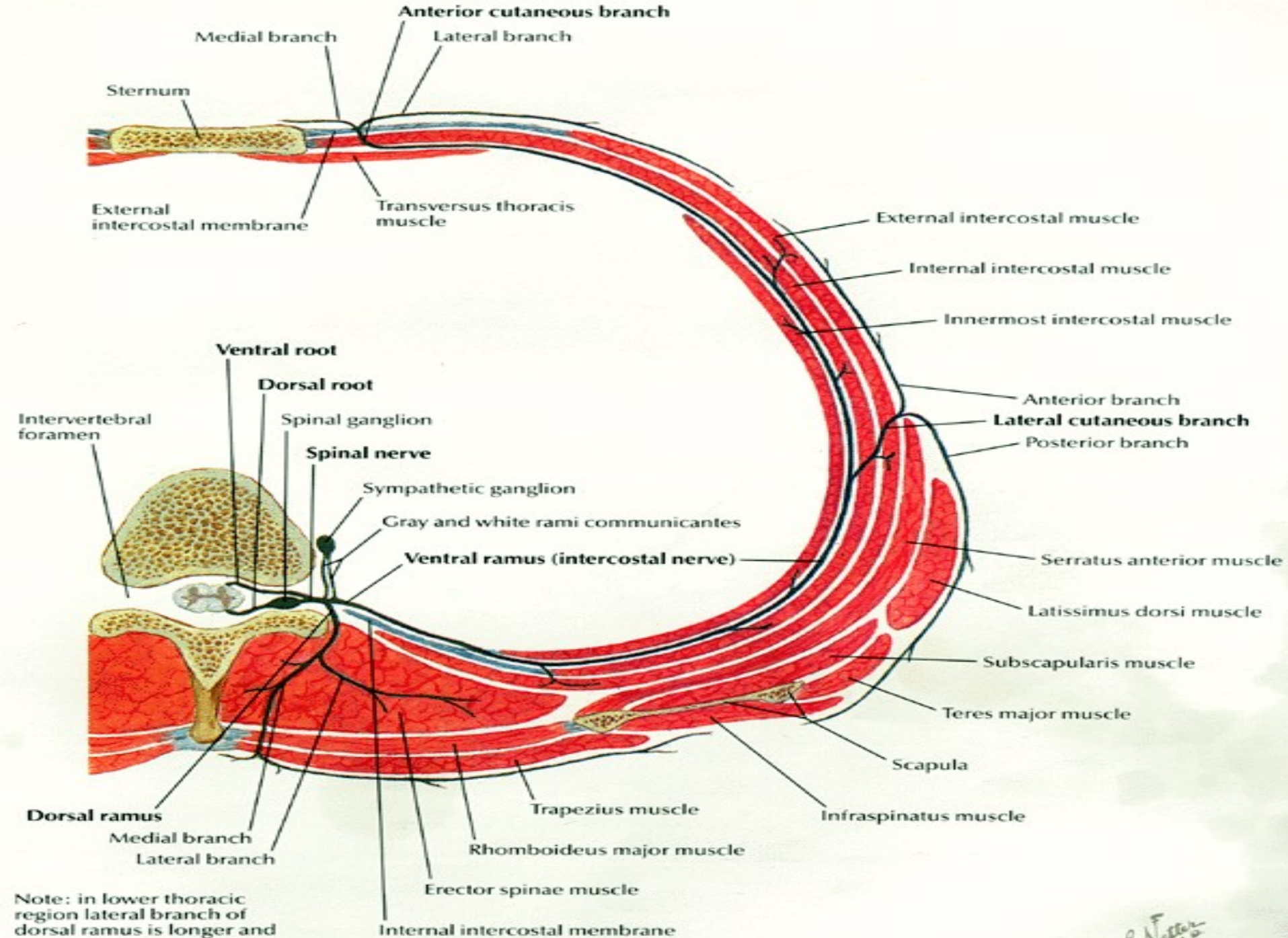




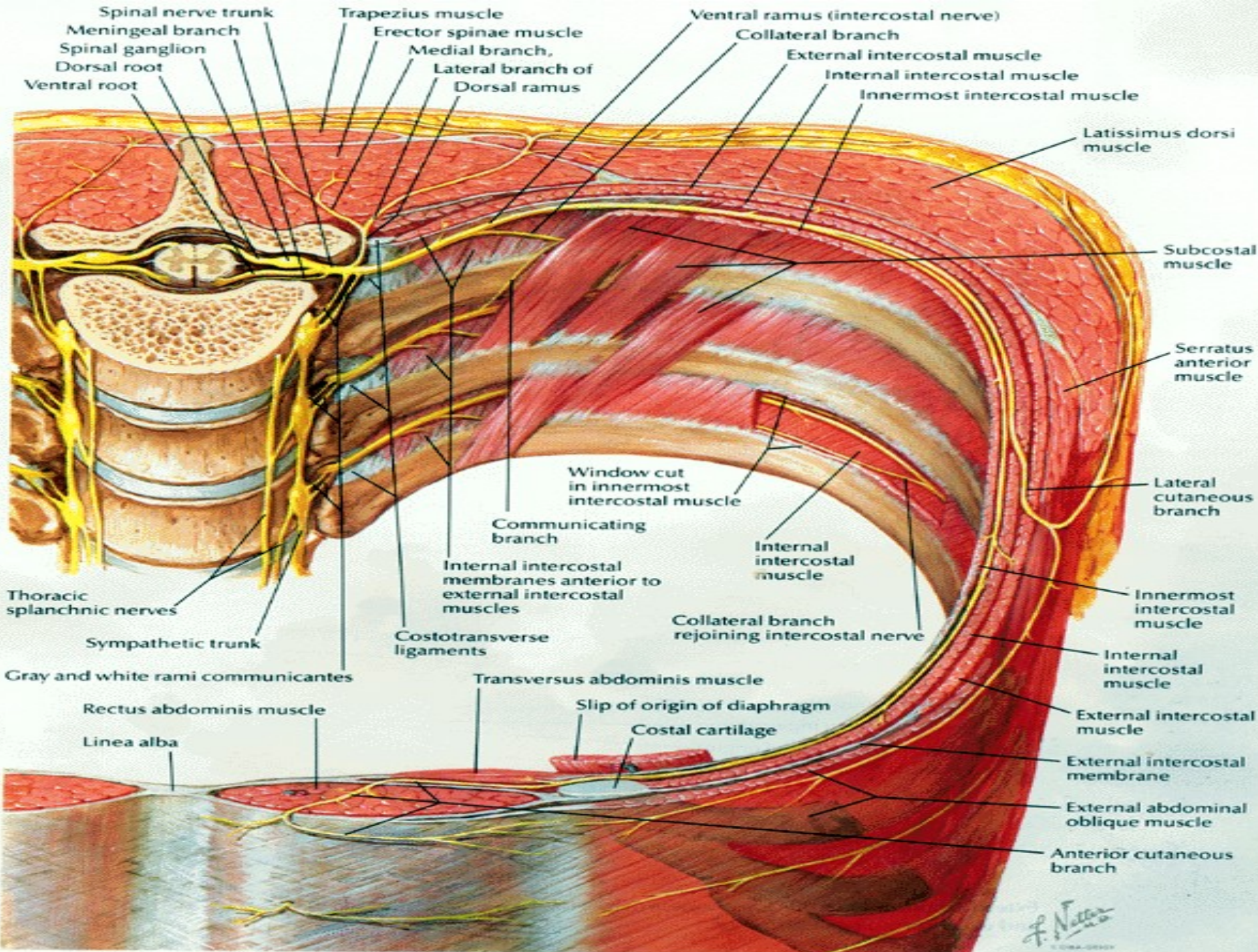


See Moore,  
p.52 Fig. 1-  
18

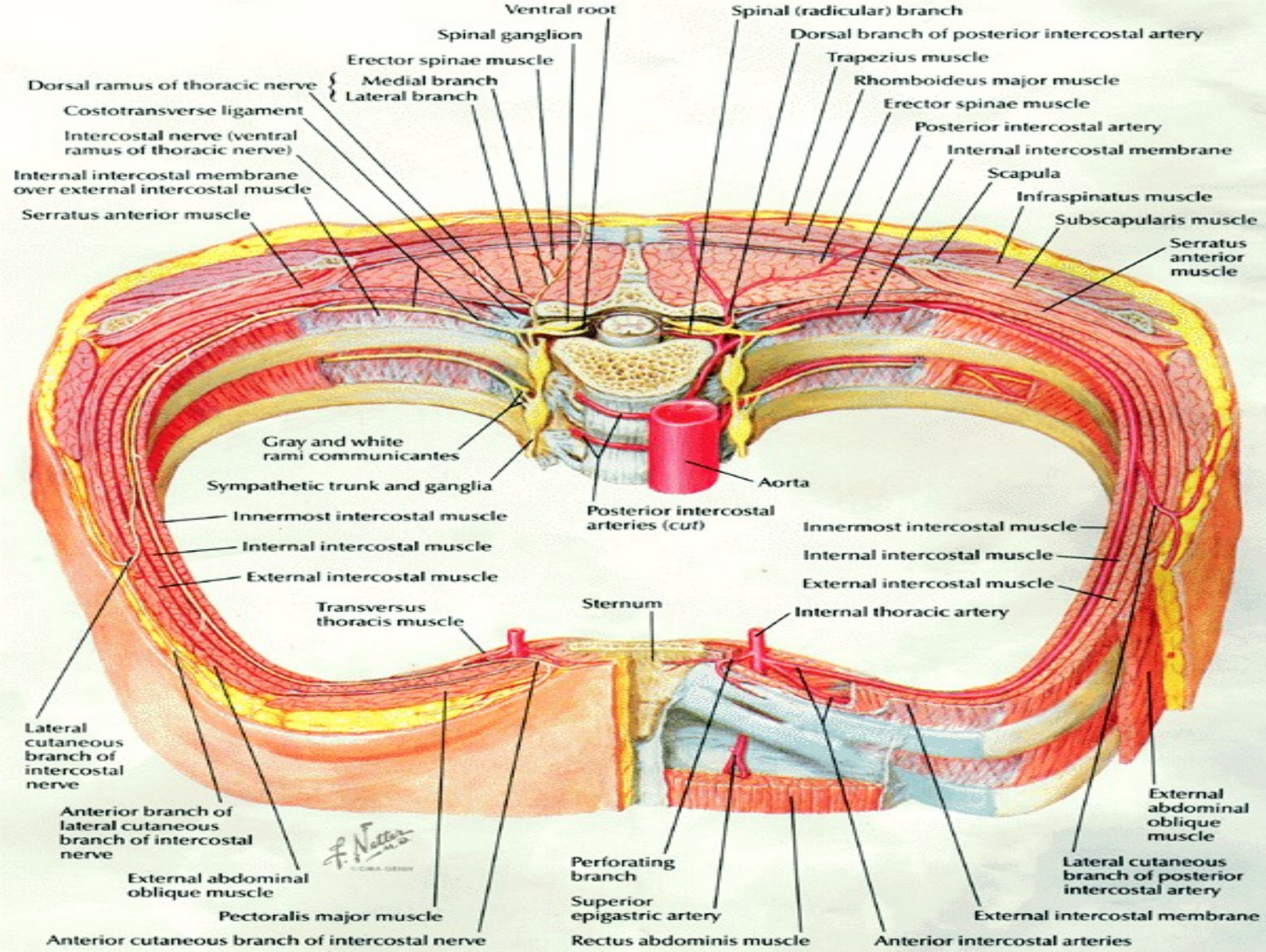






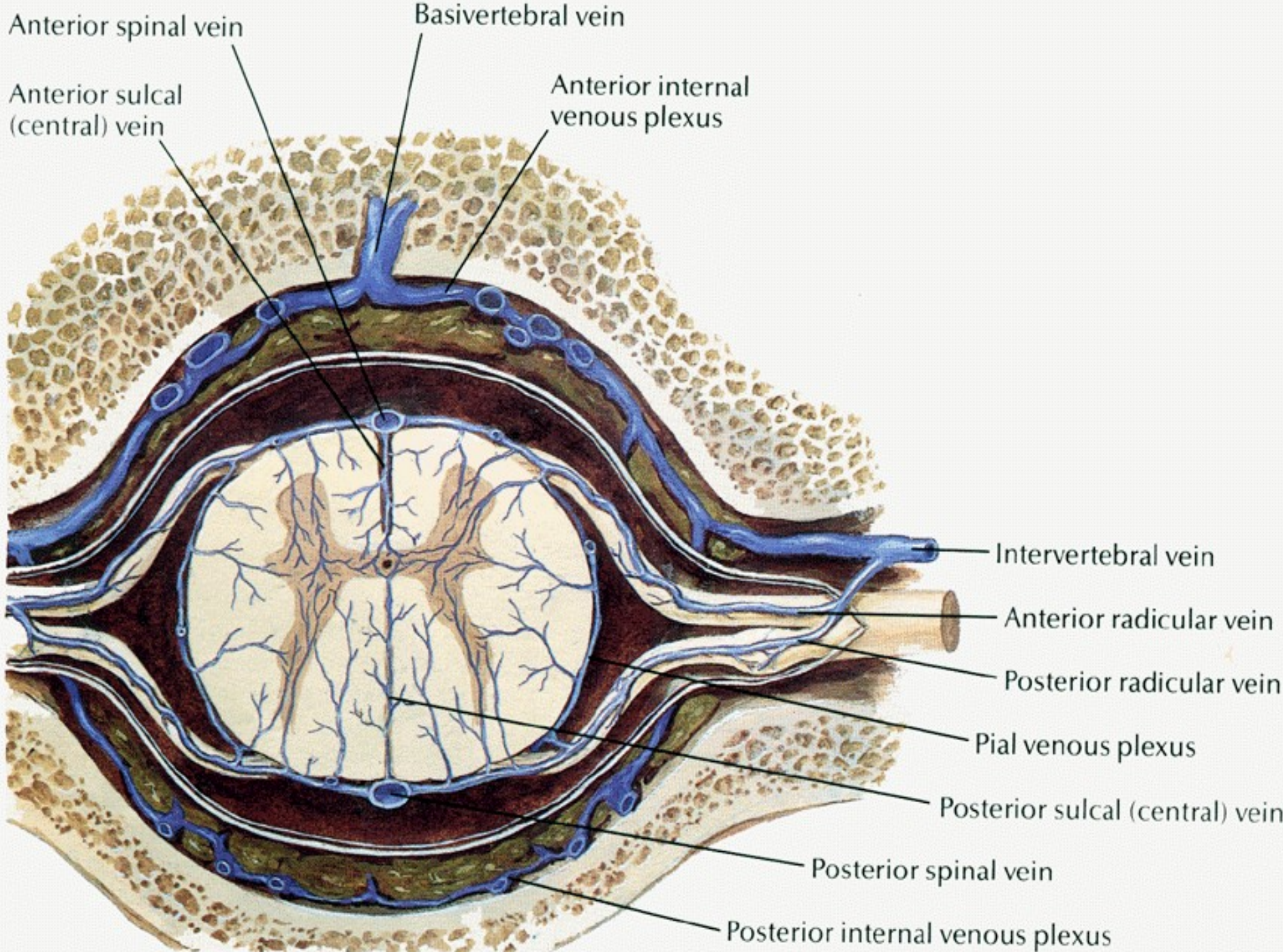






# BLOOD VESSELS

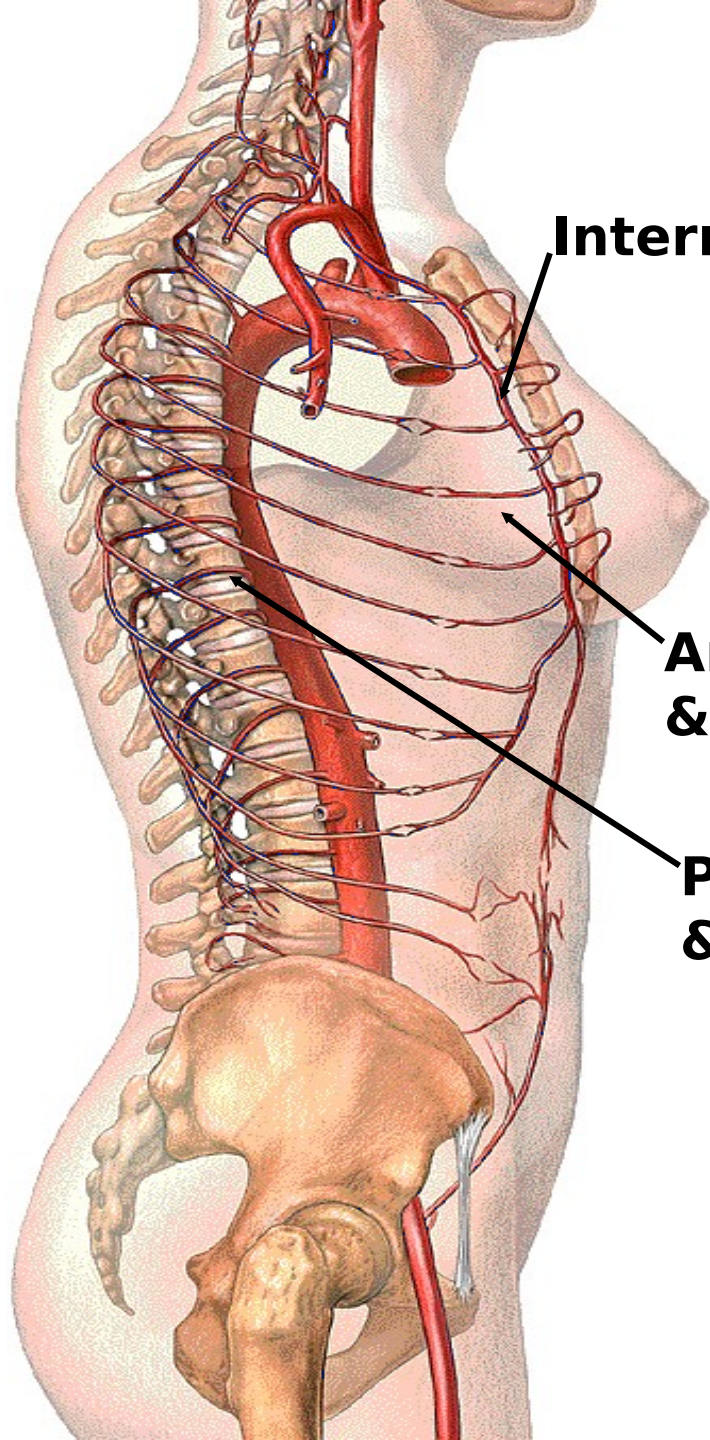




# THORACIC VESSELS

- Aorta
- Intercostal aa, vv, (& nn)
  - Posterior intercostal aa
- Internal thoracic a
  - Anterior intercostal aa
  - Terminates as:
    - Superior epigastric a
    - Musculophrenic a

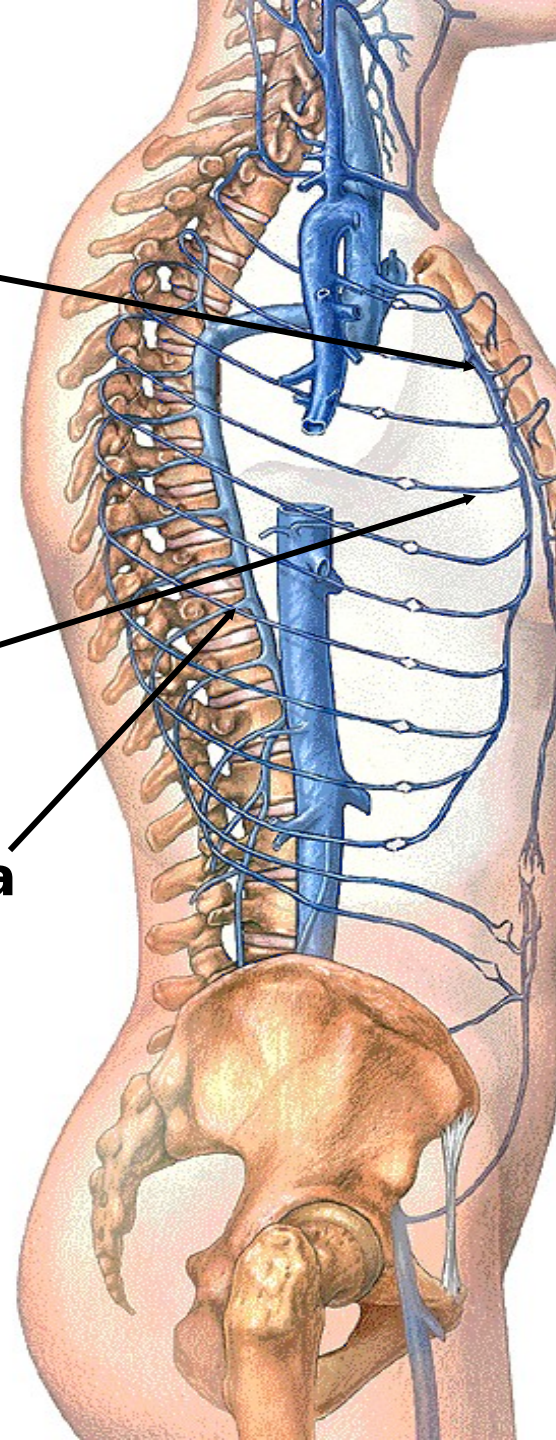




**Internal thoracic a & v**

**Anterior intercostal a  
& v**

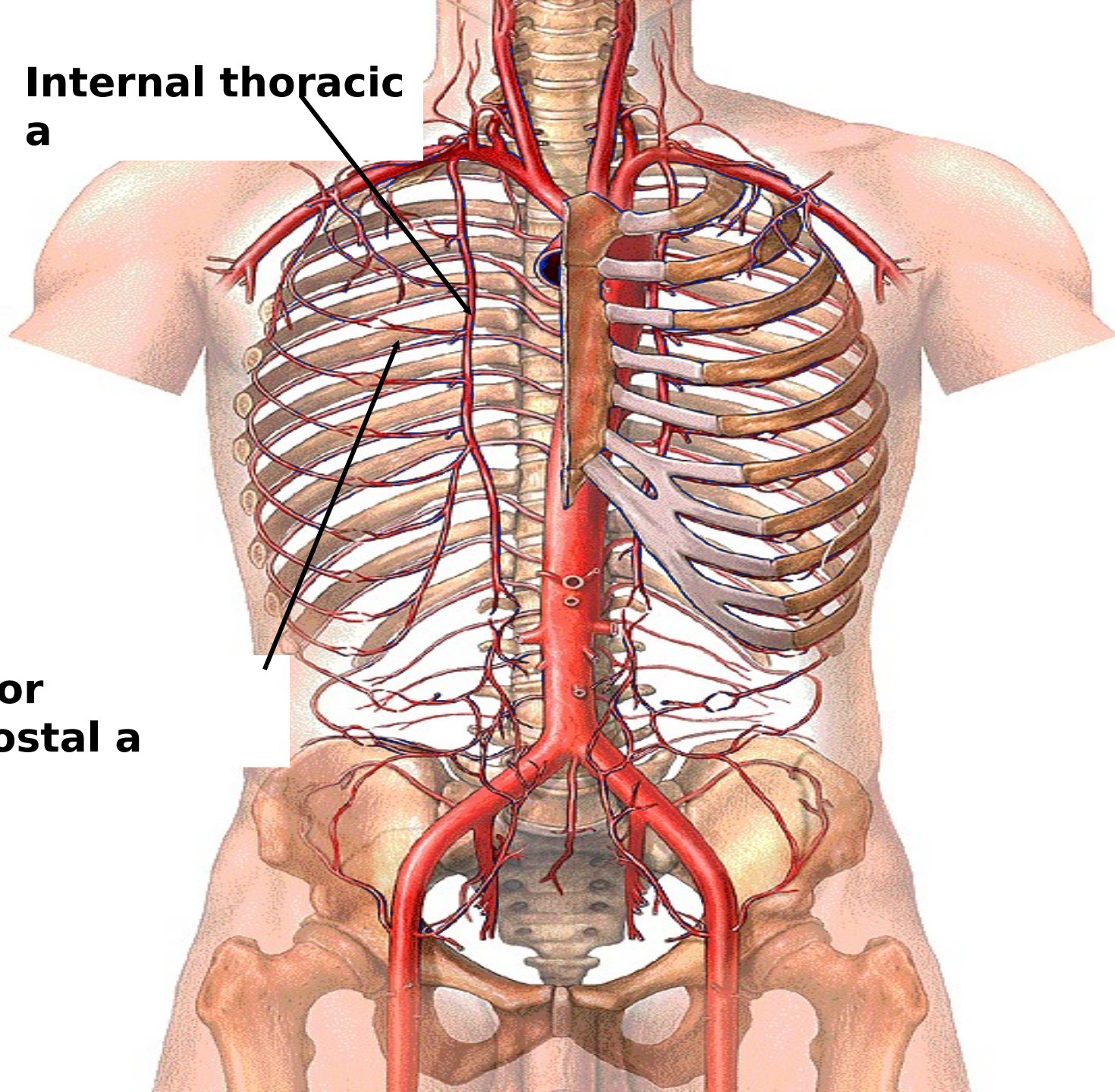
**Posterior intercostal a  
& v**



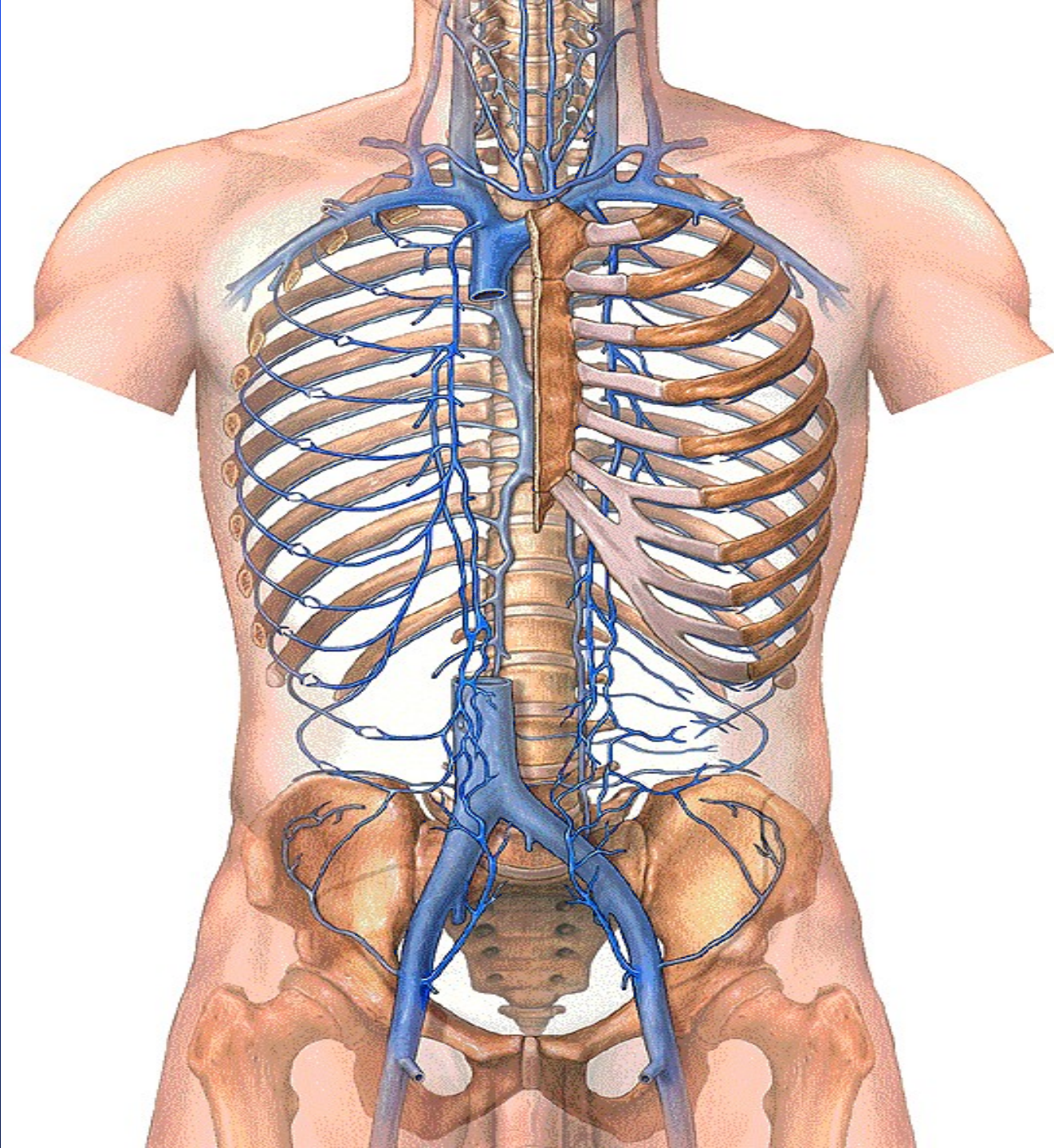


**Internal thoracic  
a**

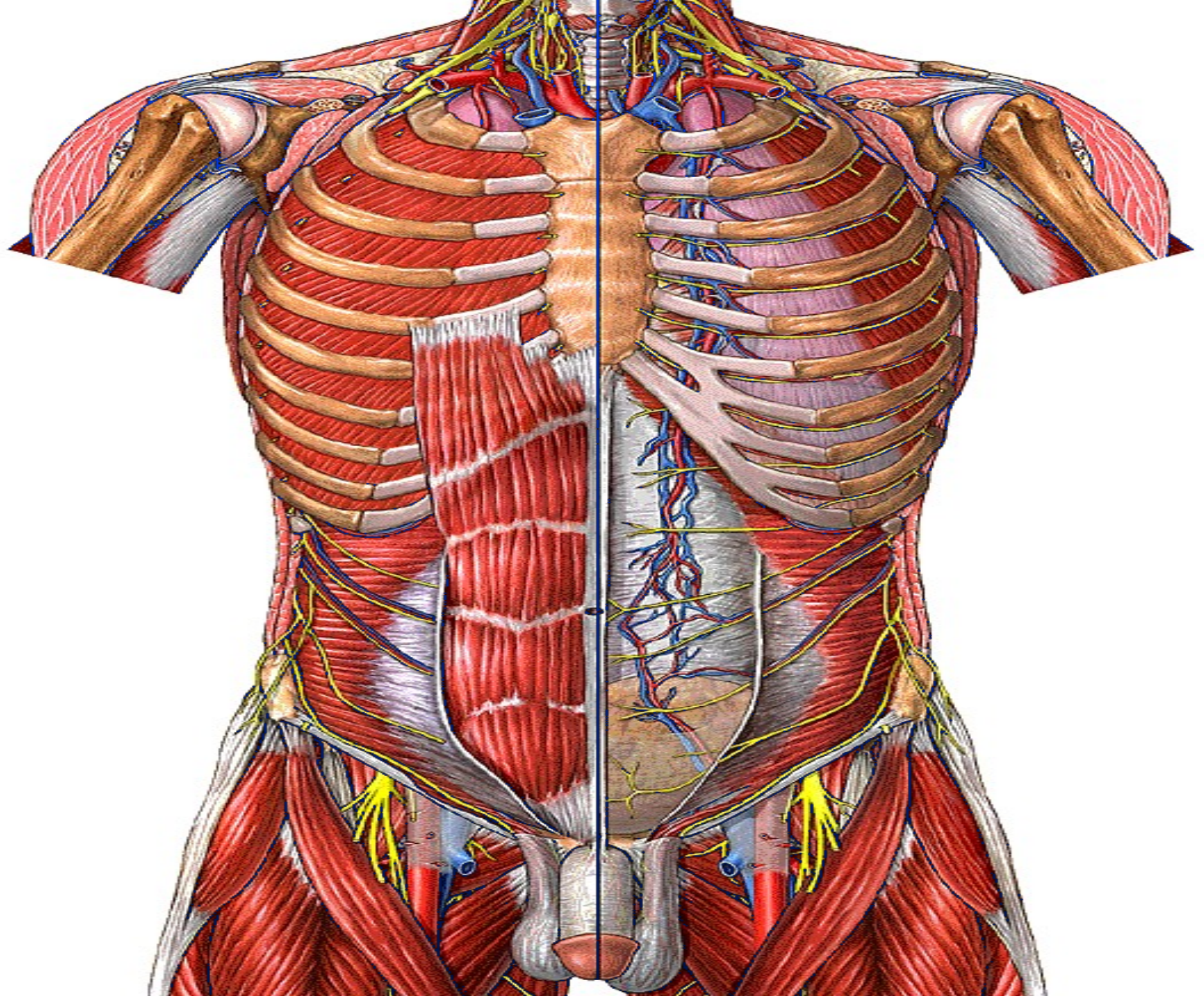
**Anterior  
intercostal a**

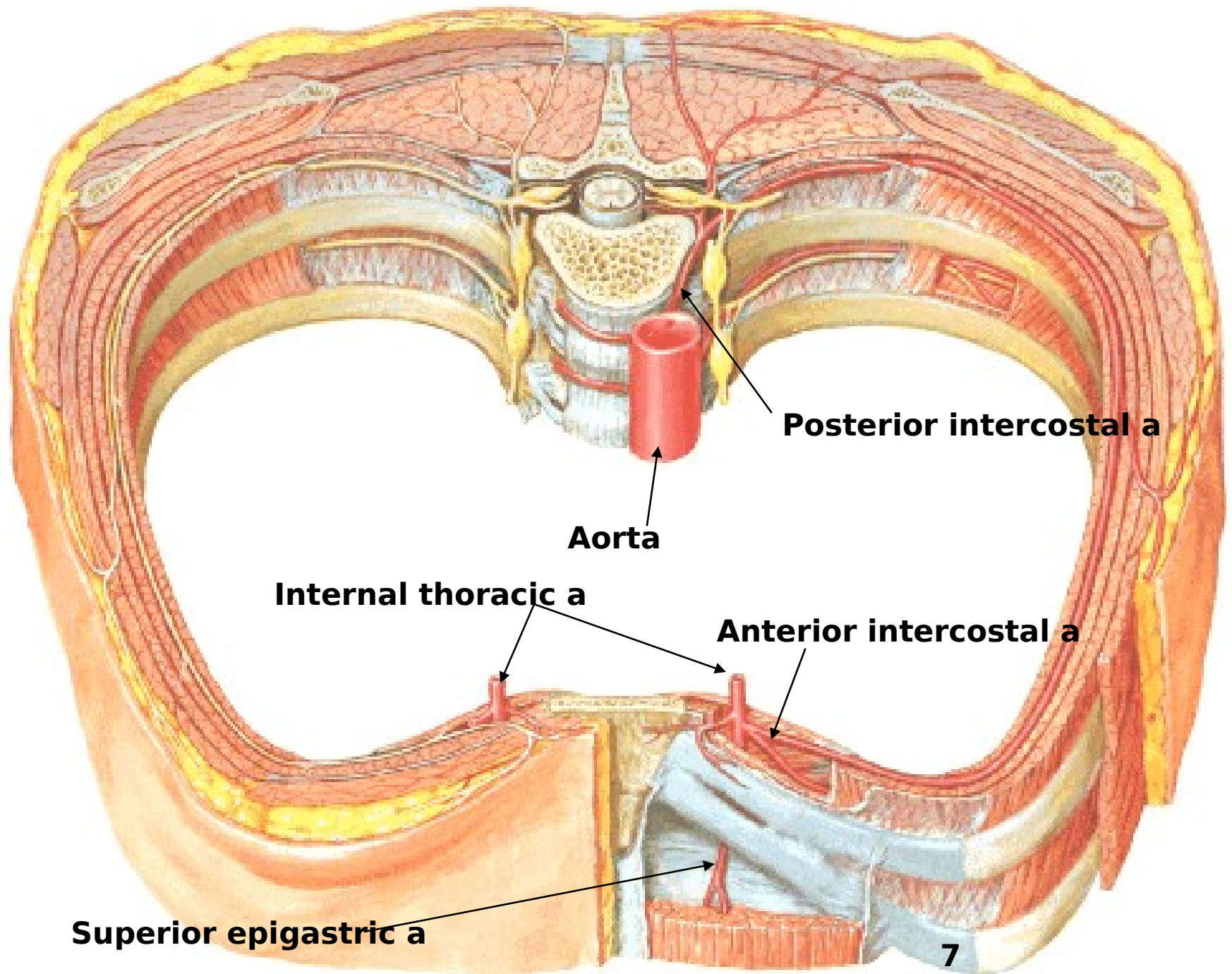








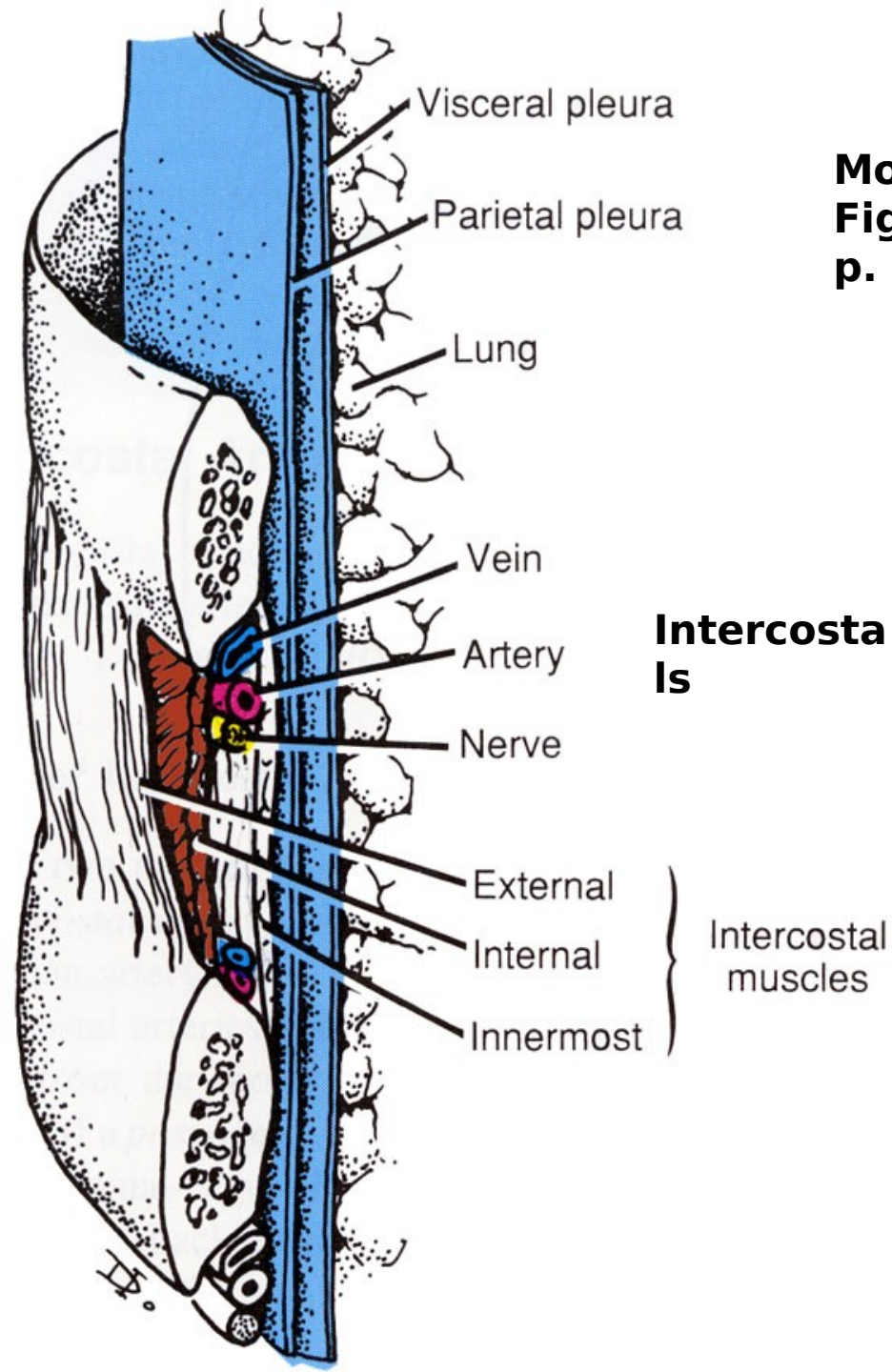




# INTERCOSTAL N.A.V.

- Lie between internal and innermost intercostal mm
  - V.A.N. (superior to inferior)
  - Contained in costal groove





**Moore**  
**Fig. 1-23b**  
**p. 57**

**Intercostal**  
**Is**

# VENOUS DRAINAGE

- Azygous v
- Hemiazygous v
- Accessory hemiazygous v
- Internal thoracic vv
  - To subclavian vv
- Intercostal vv
  - To azygous system/int thoracic vv



**Superior vena  
cava v**

**Azygos  
v**

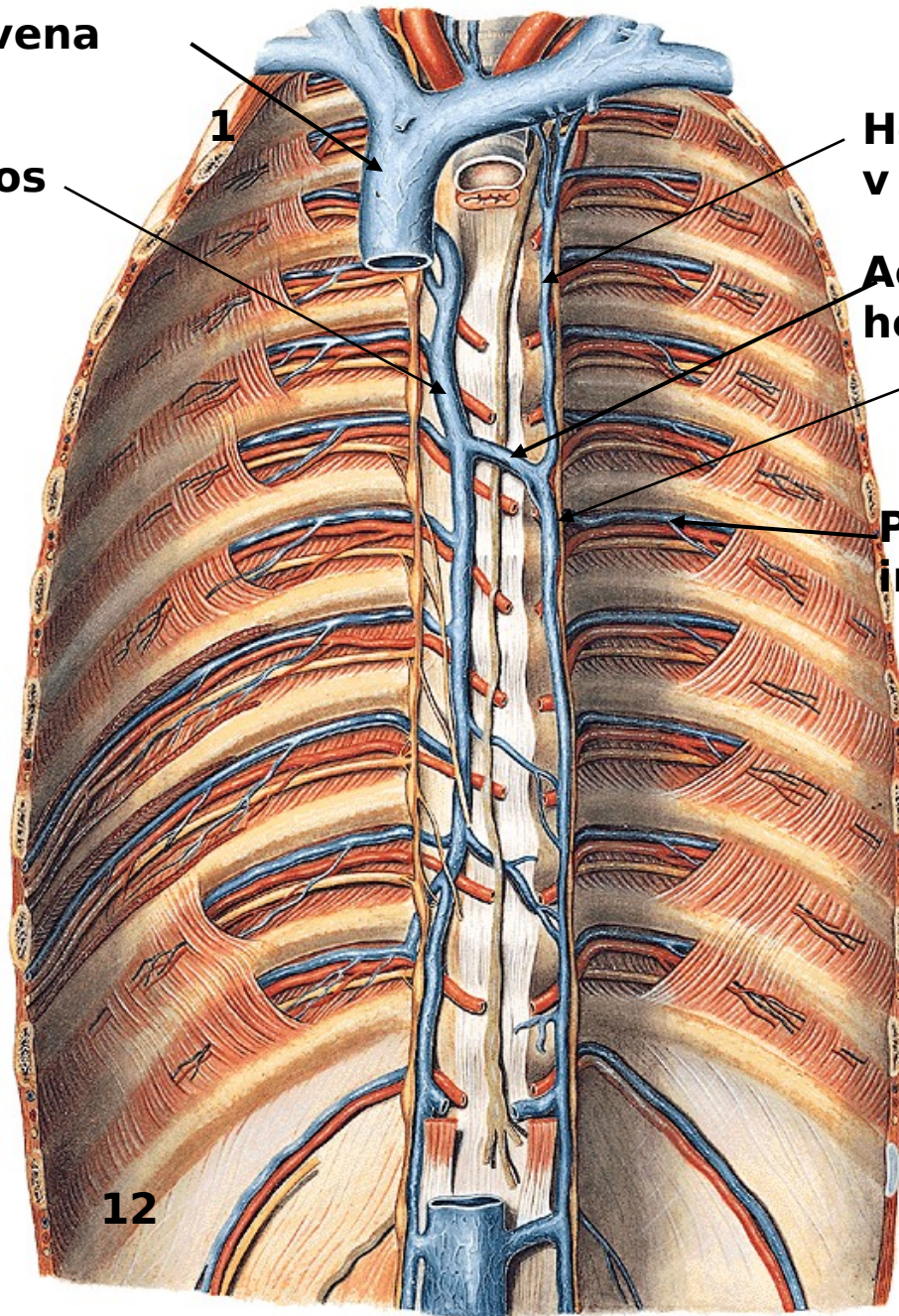
**Hemiazygos  
v**

**Accessory  
hemiazygos v**  
**Hemiazygos  
v**

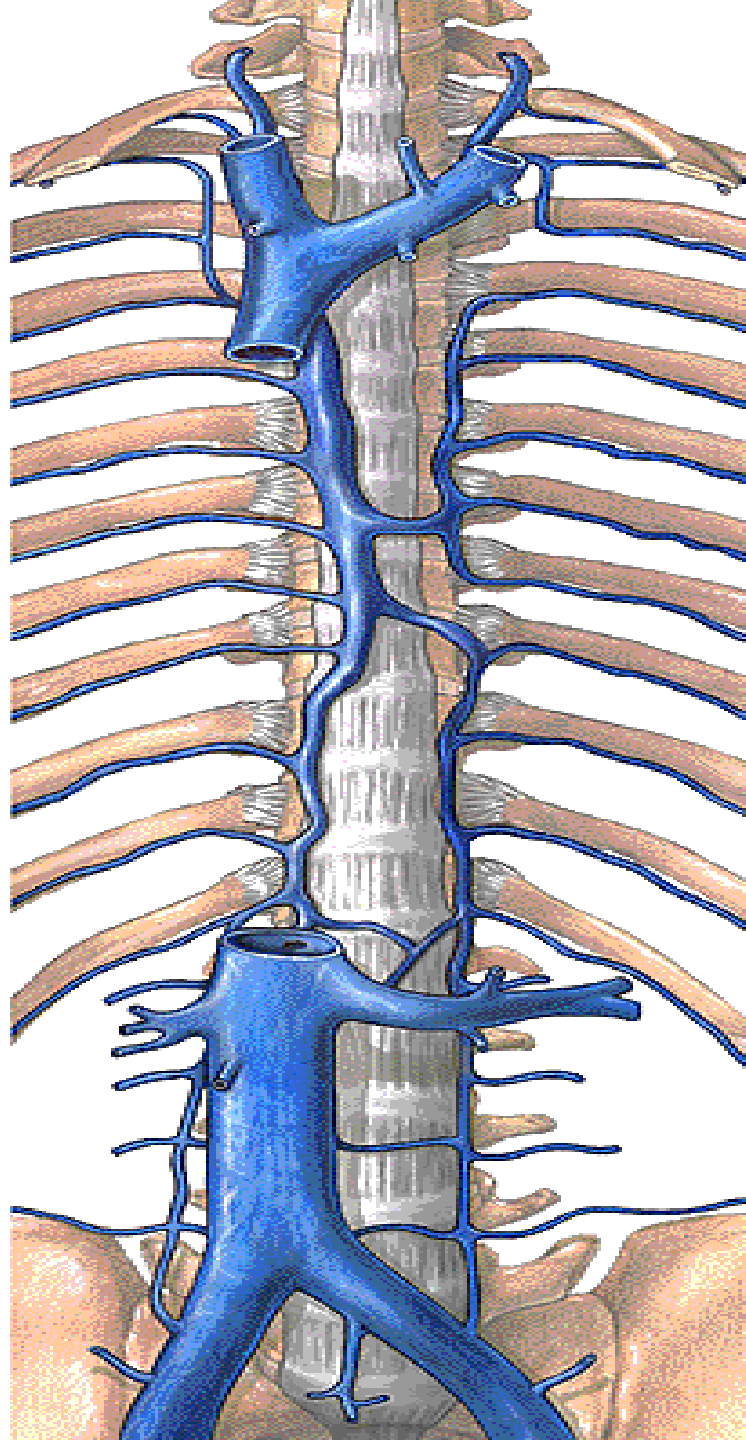
**Posterior  
intercostal v & a**

**Note:  
V  
A  
N**

**12**



**See  
Moore, p.  
119, Fig.  
1-76**



**See T&G, p.654 &655;  
Fig. 21.26**

# FLOOR

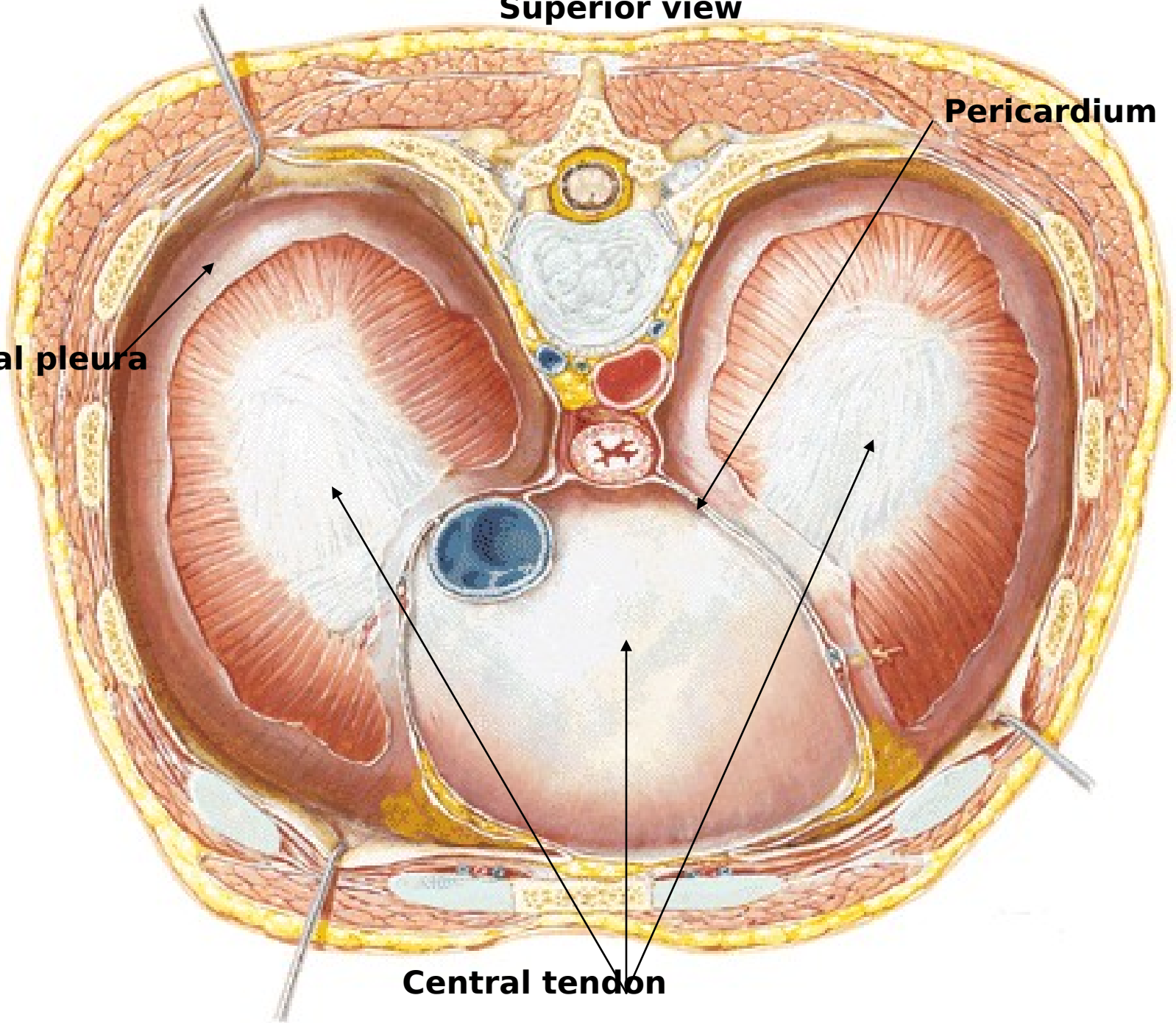
- Diaphragm separates the thoracic and abdominal cavities
  - Dome-shaped muscle
  - Top of “dome” is tendinous

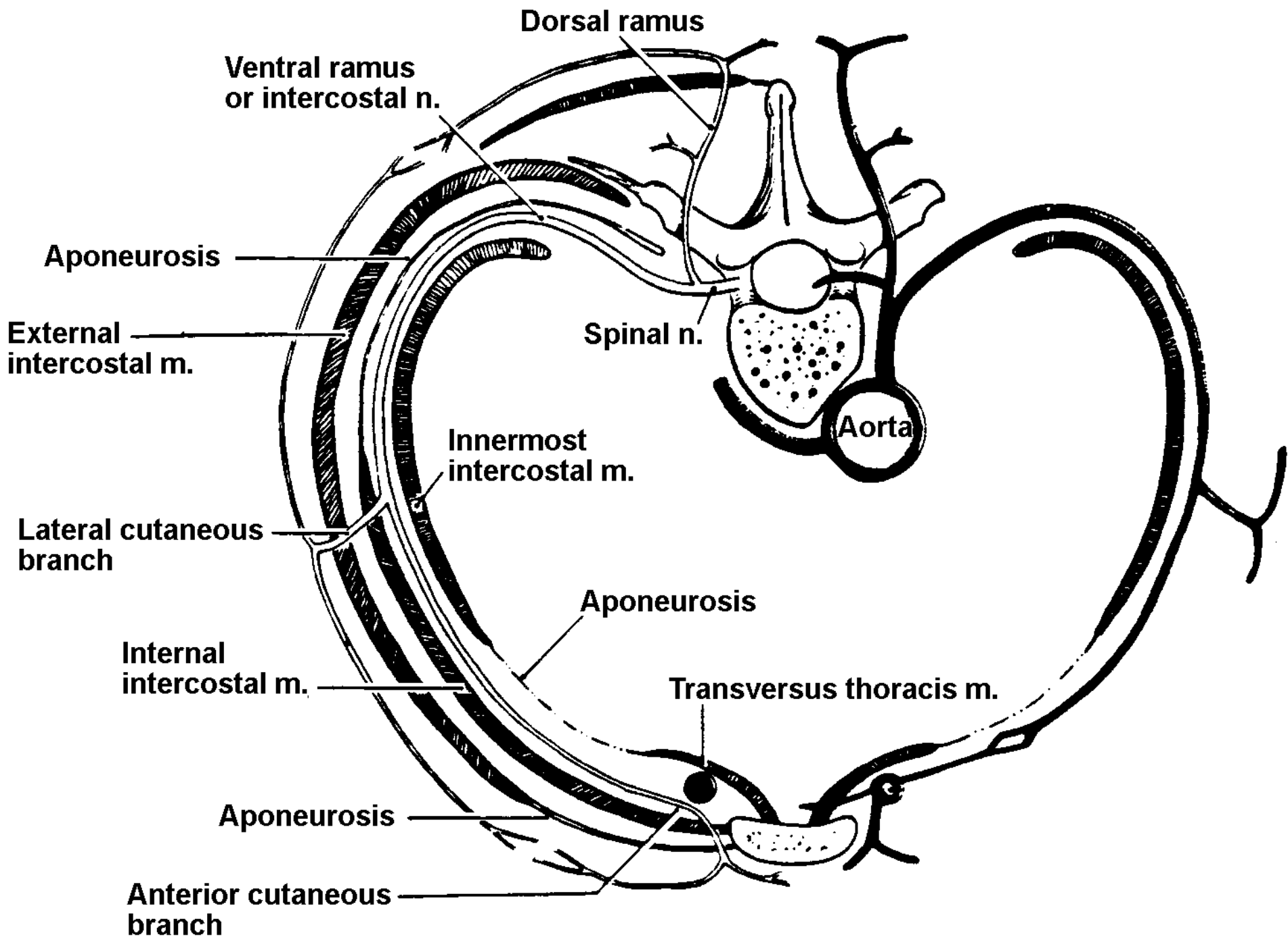
**Superior view**

**Pericardium**

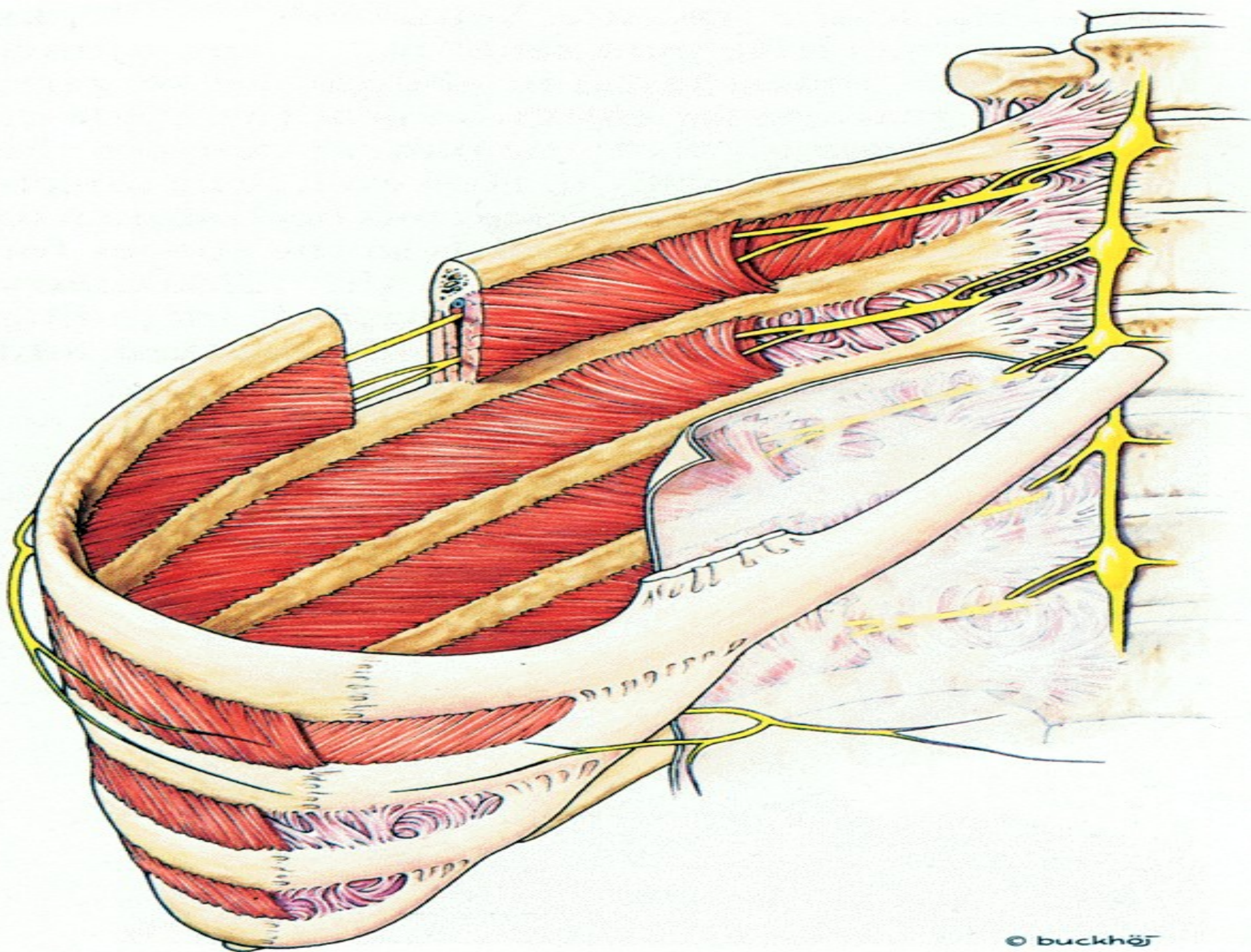
**Visceral pleura**

**Central tendon**









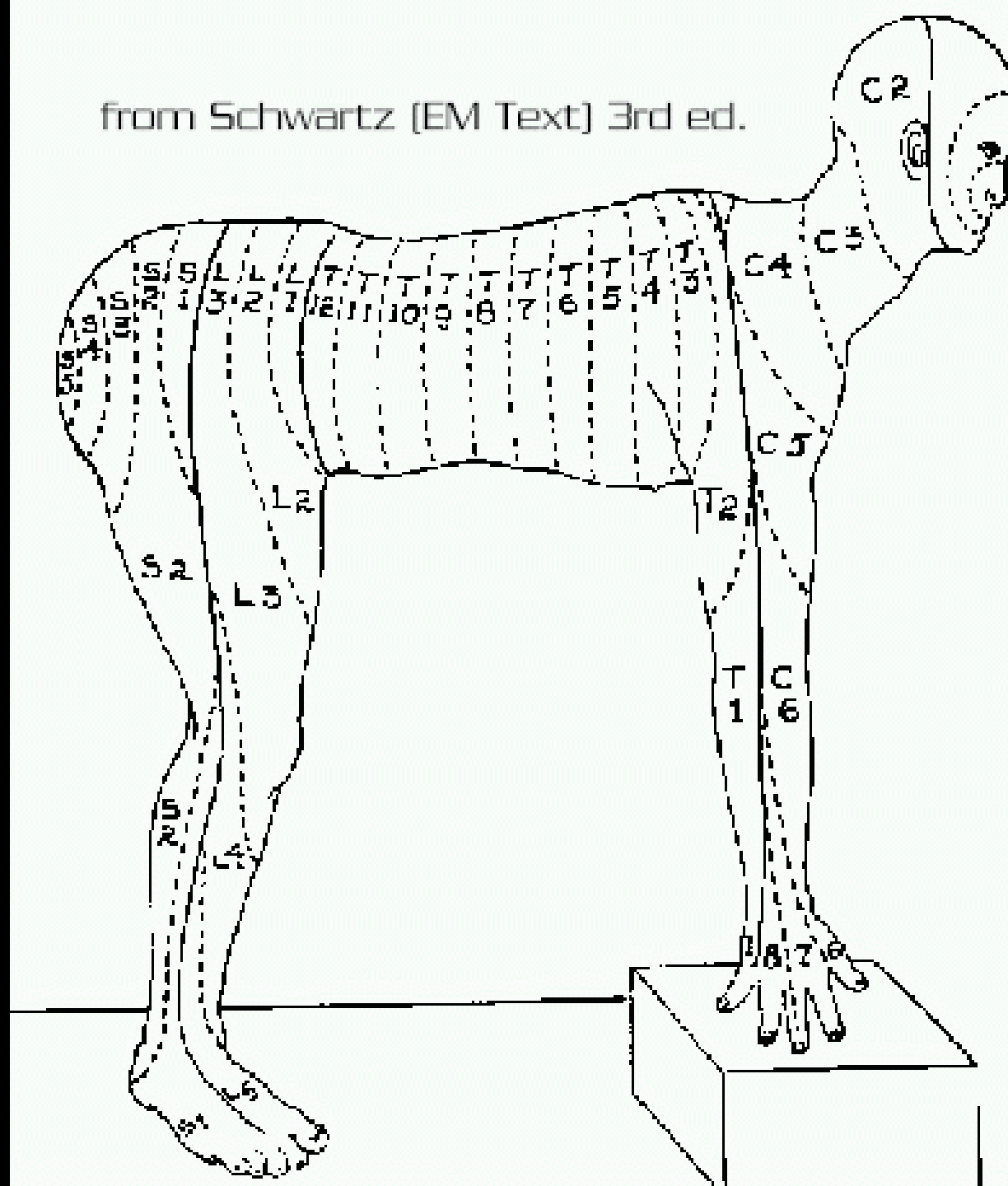


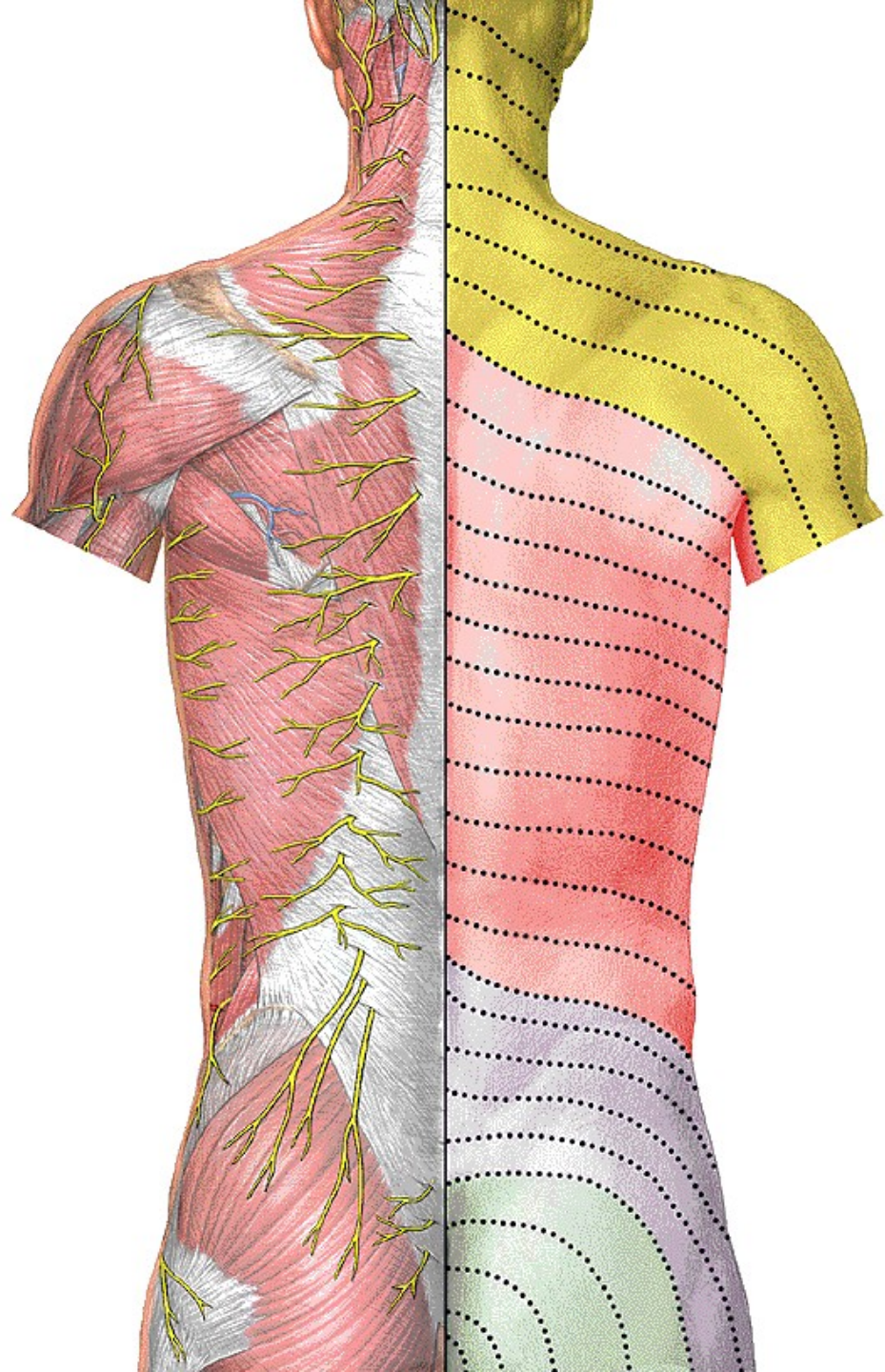
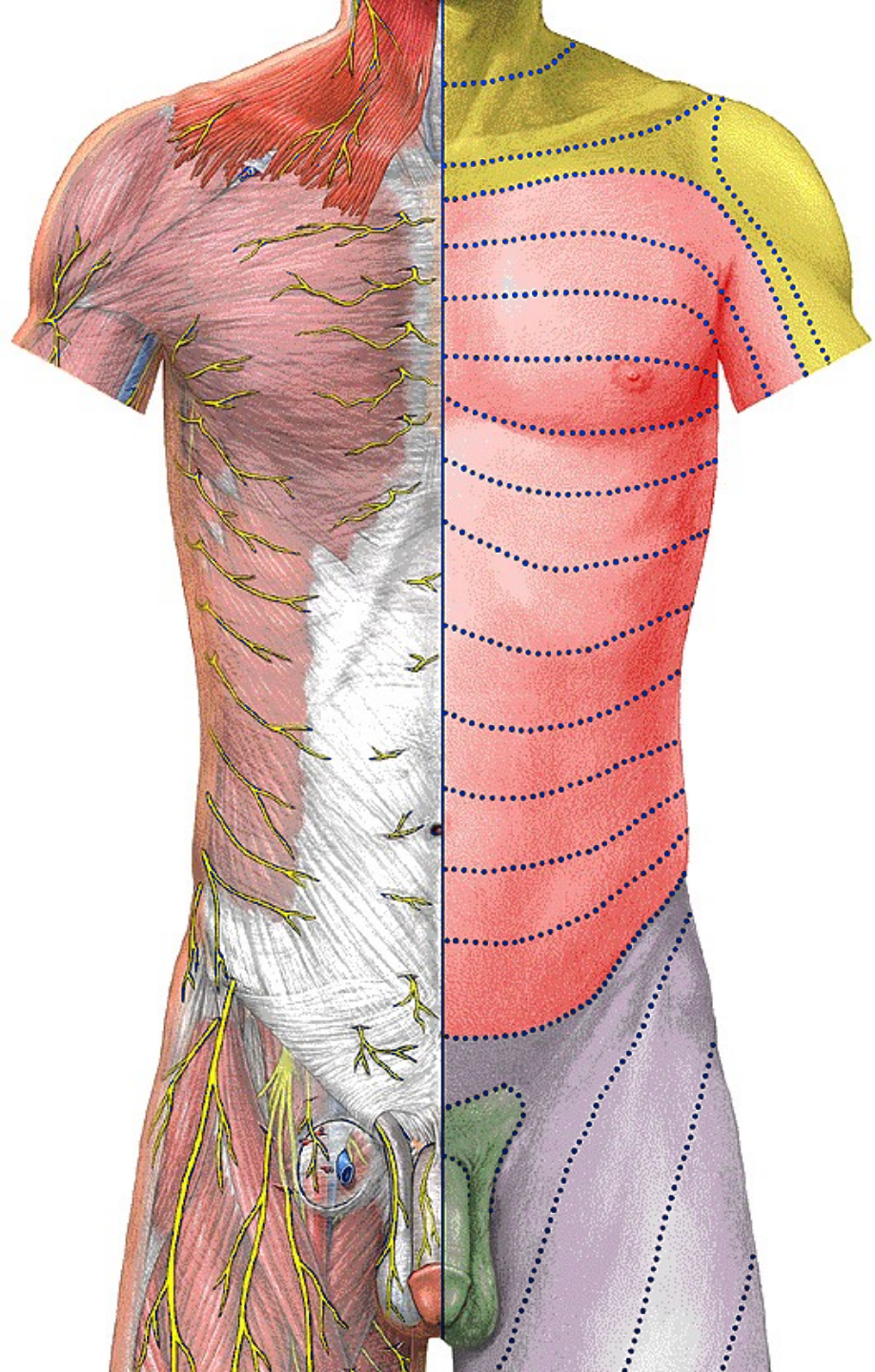
# PELVIS

- Boundaries
  - Pelvic inlet
  - Pelvic diaphragm
  - Walls
    - Hip bones (ant & lat)
    - Sacrum (post)
    - Obturator membrane
      - Muscles

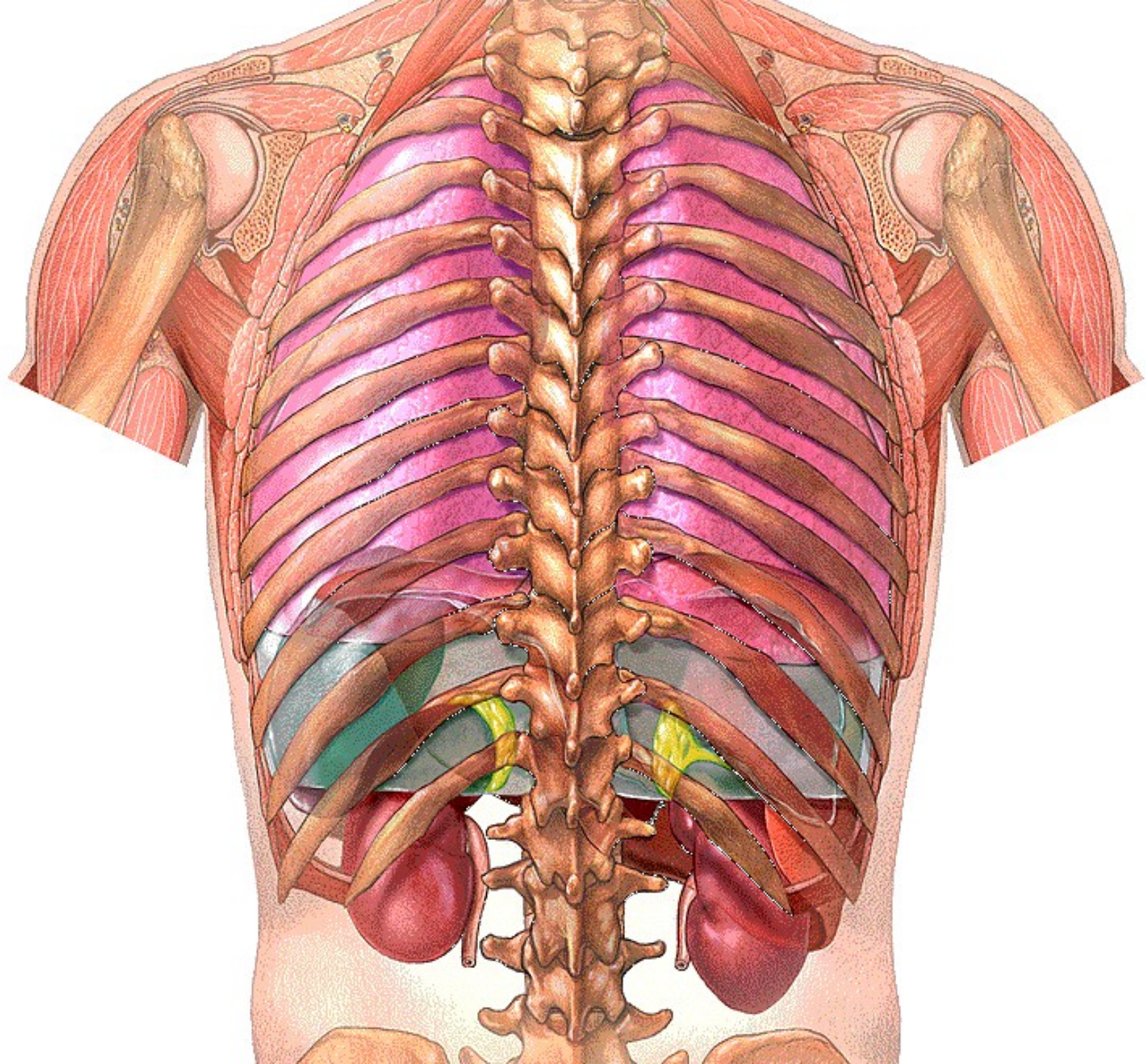
# DERMATOMES

from Schwartz (EM Text) 3rd ed.

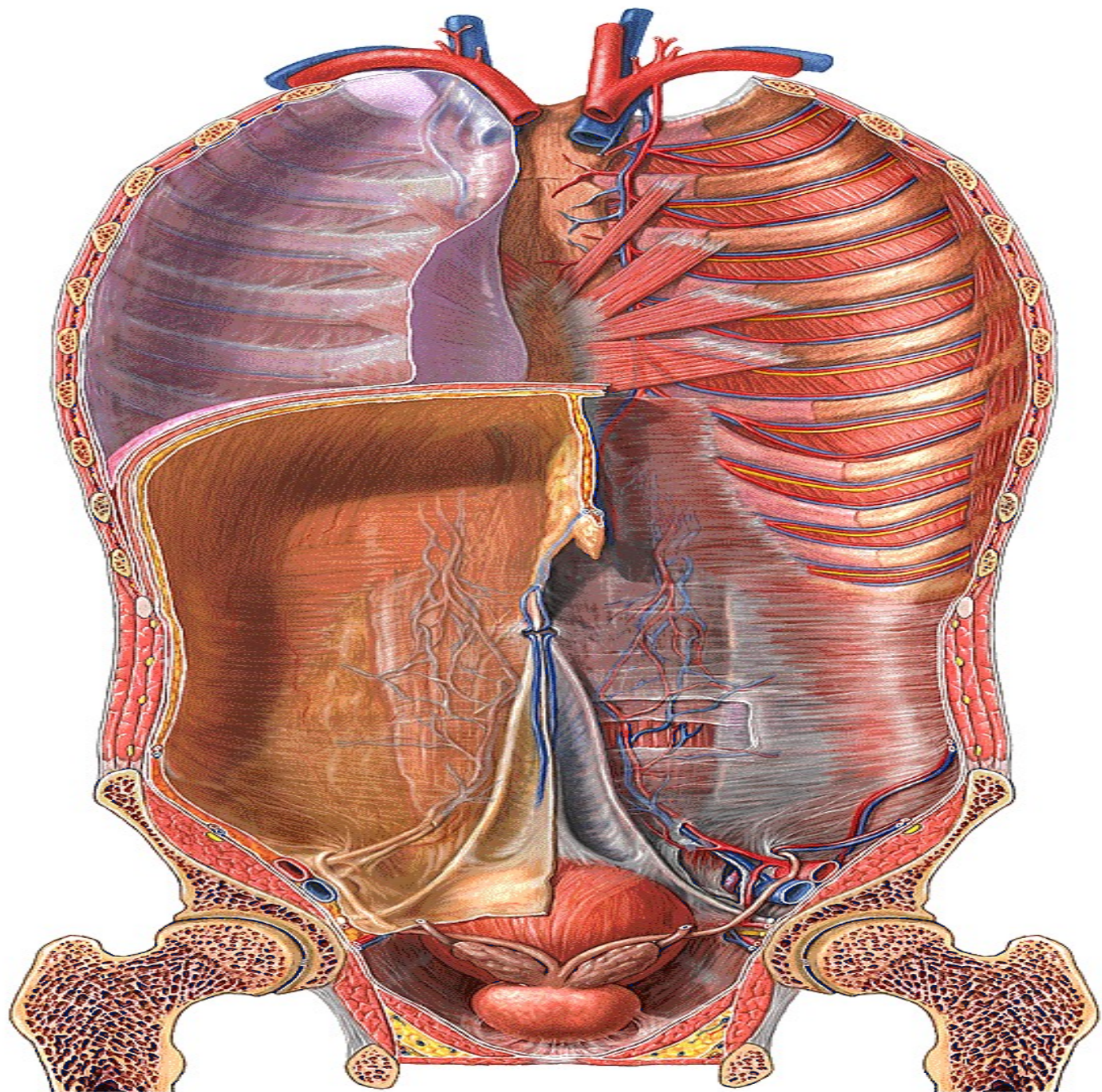




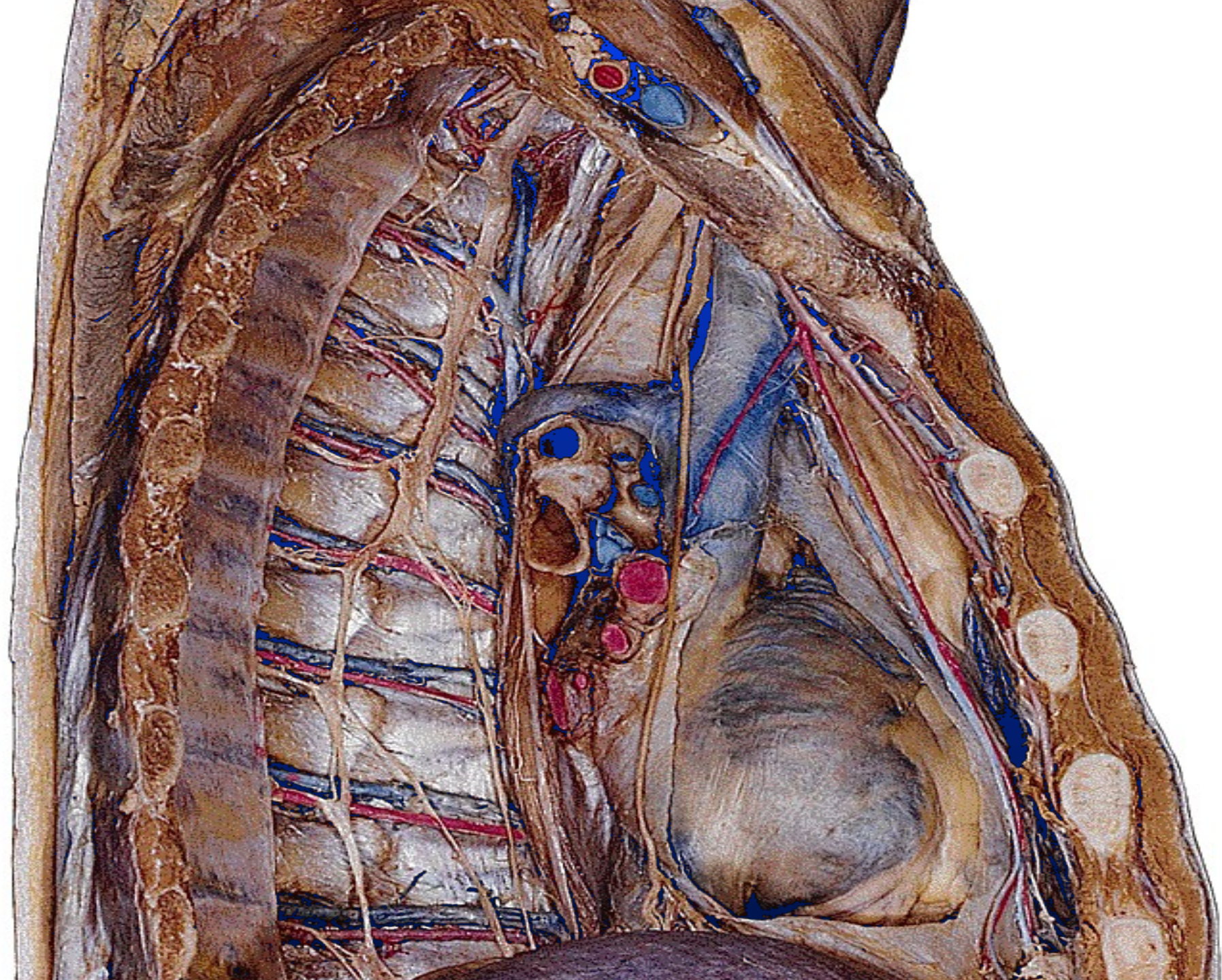




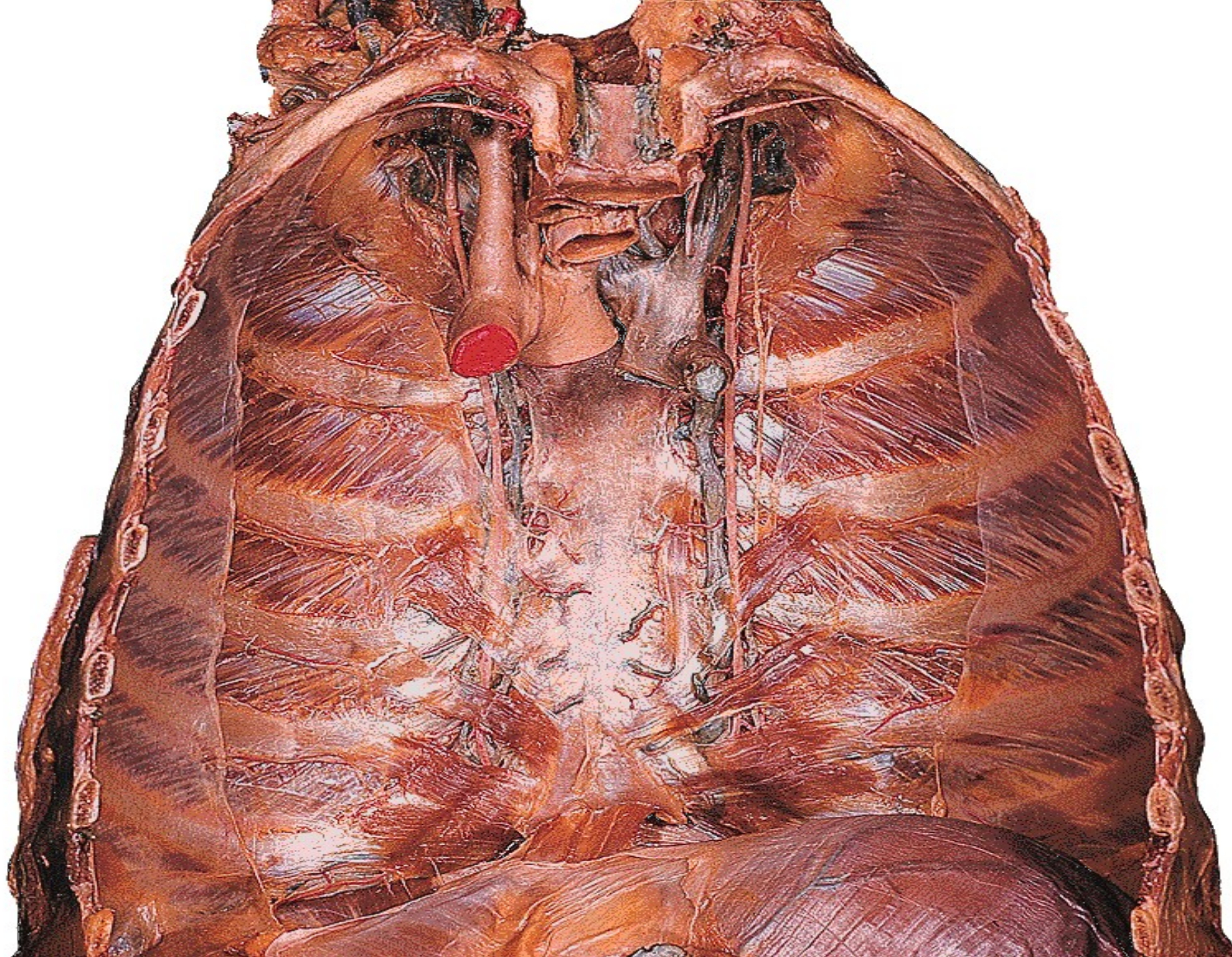












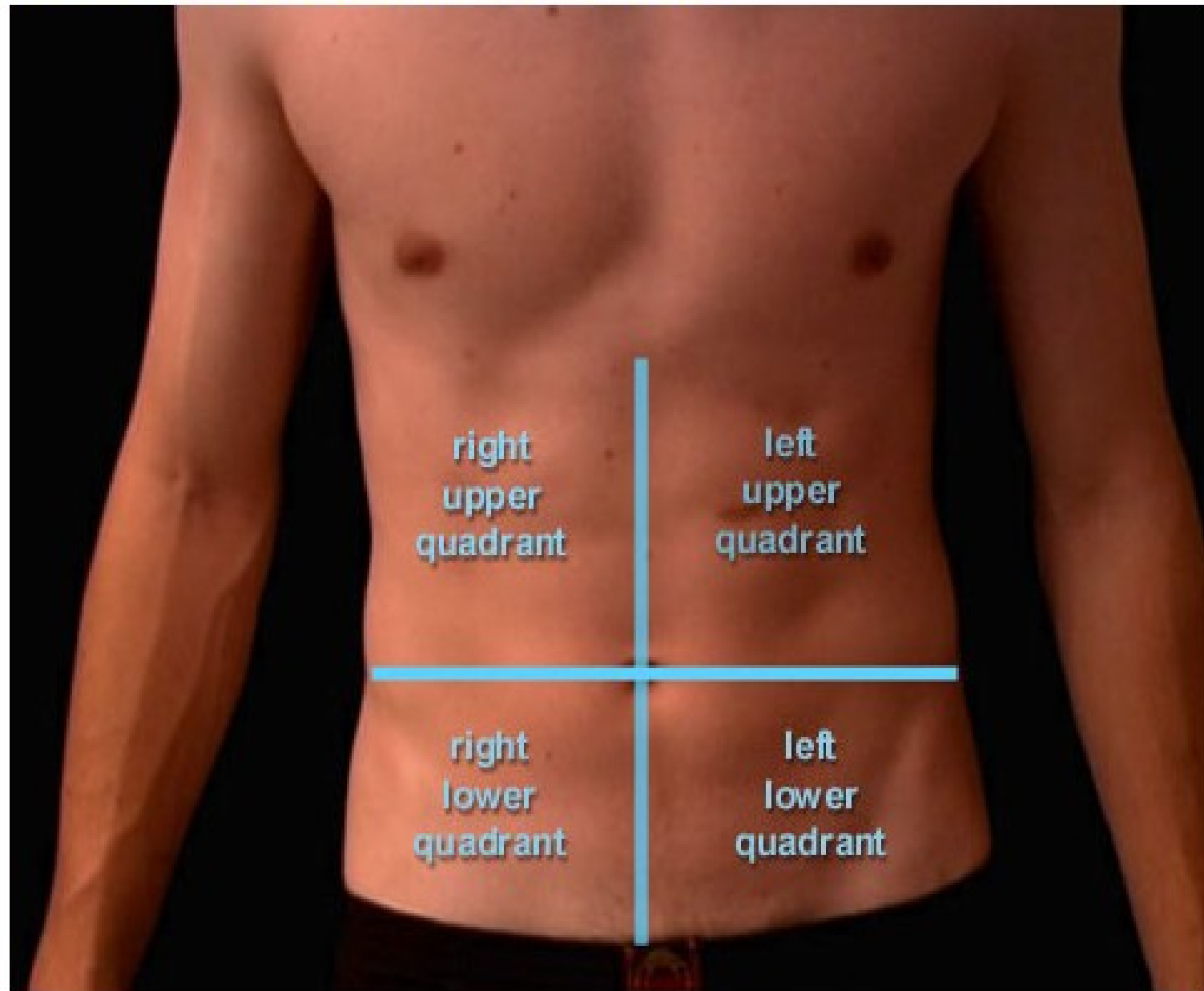


# DERMATOMES

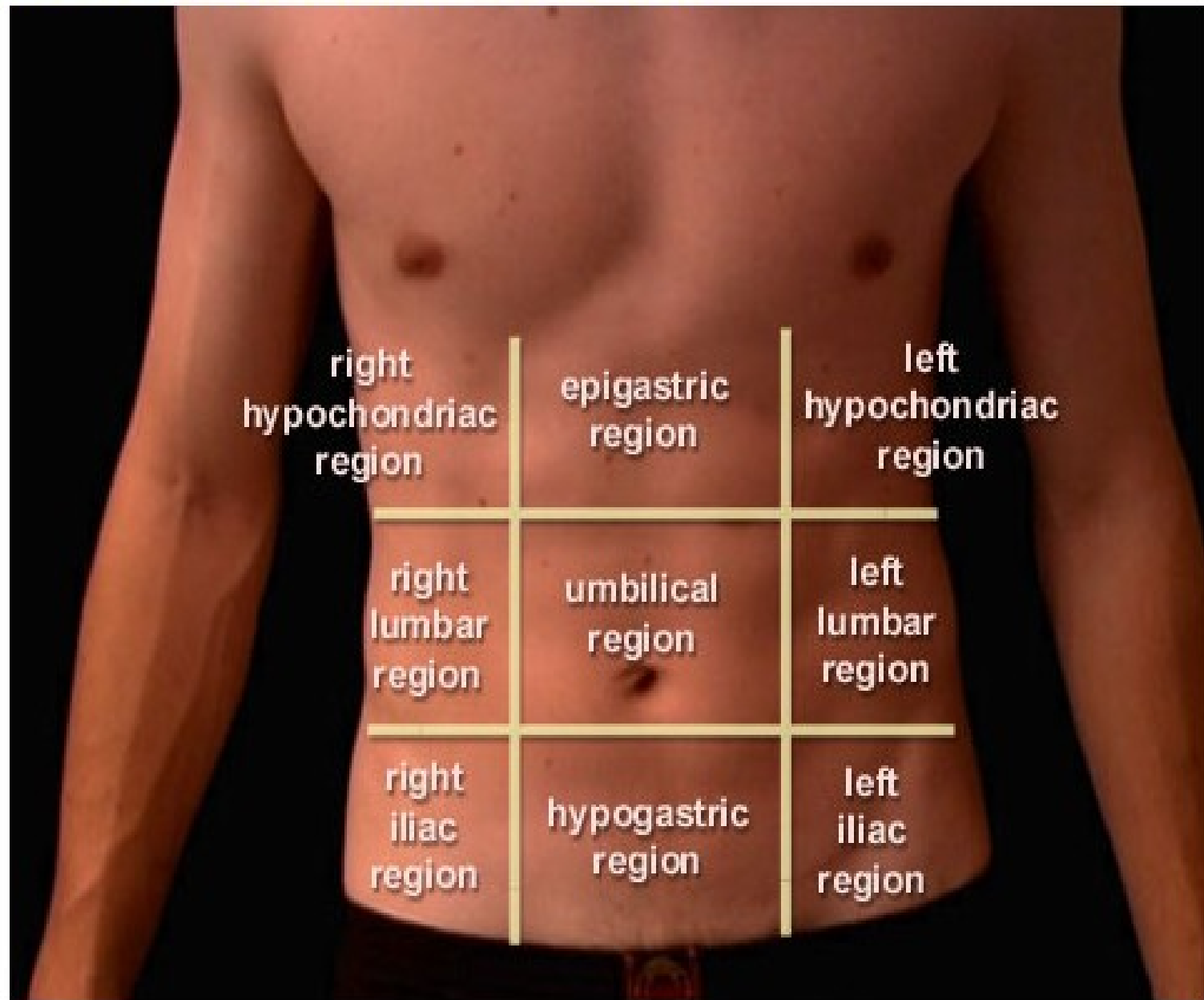
# The Abdominal Cavity



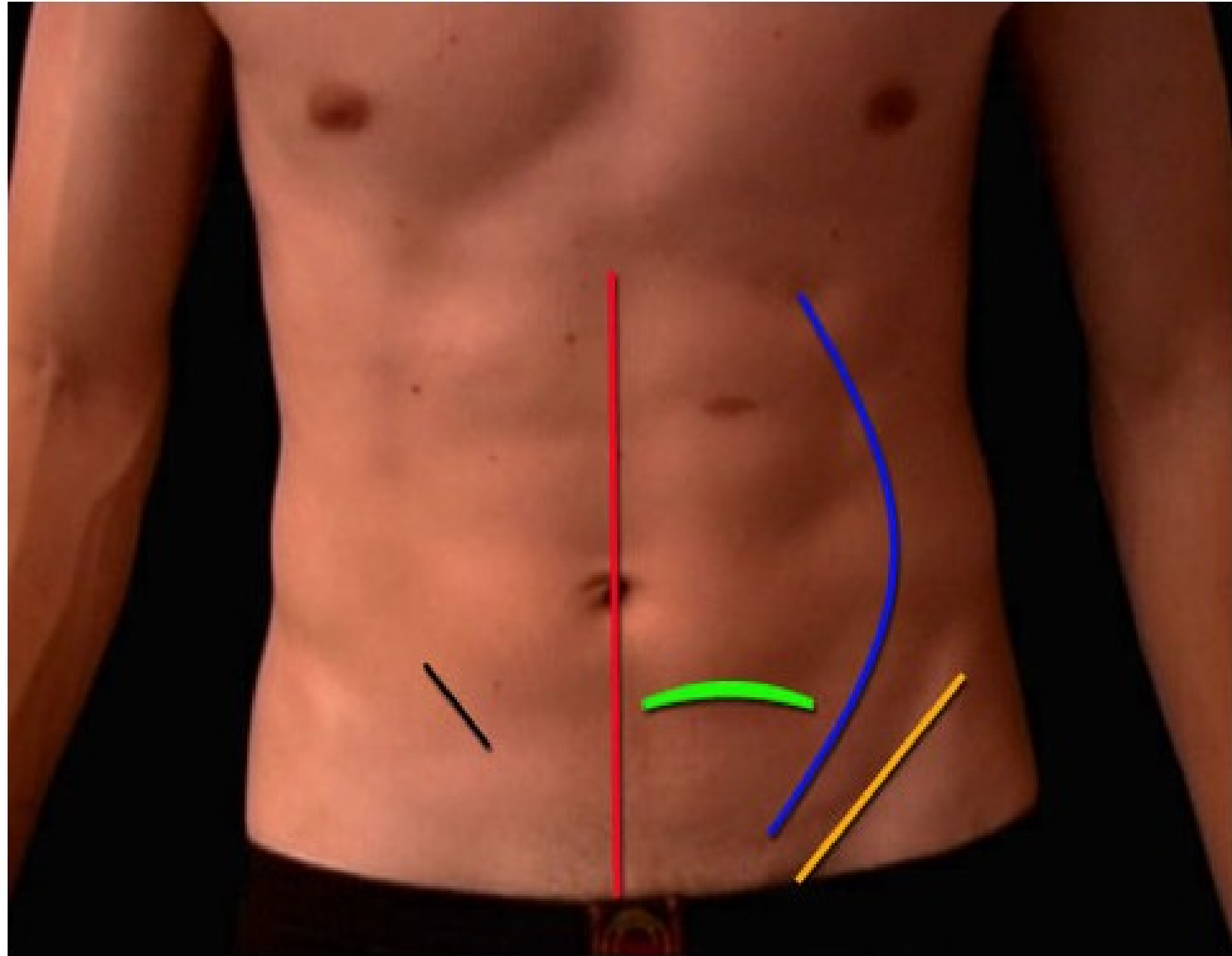
## Surface Anatomy: Abdominal Regions



# Surface Anatomy: Abdominal Regions



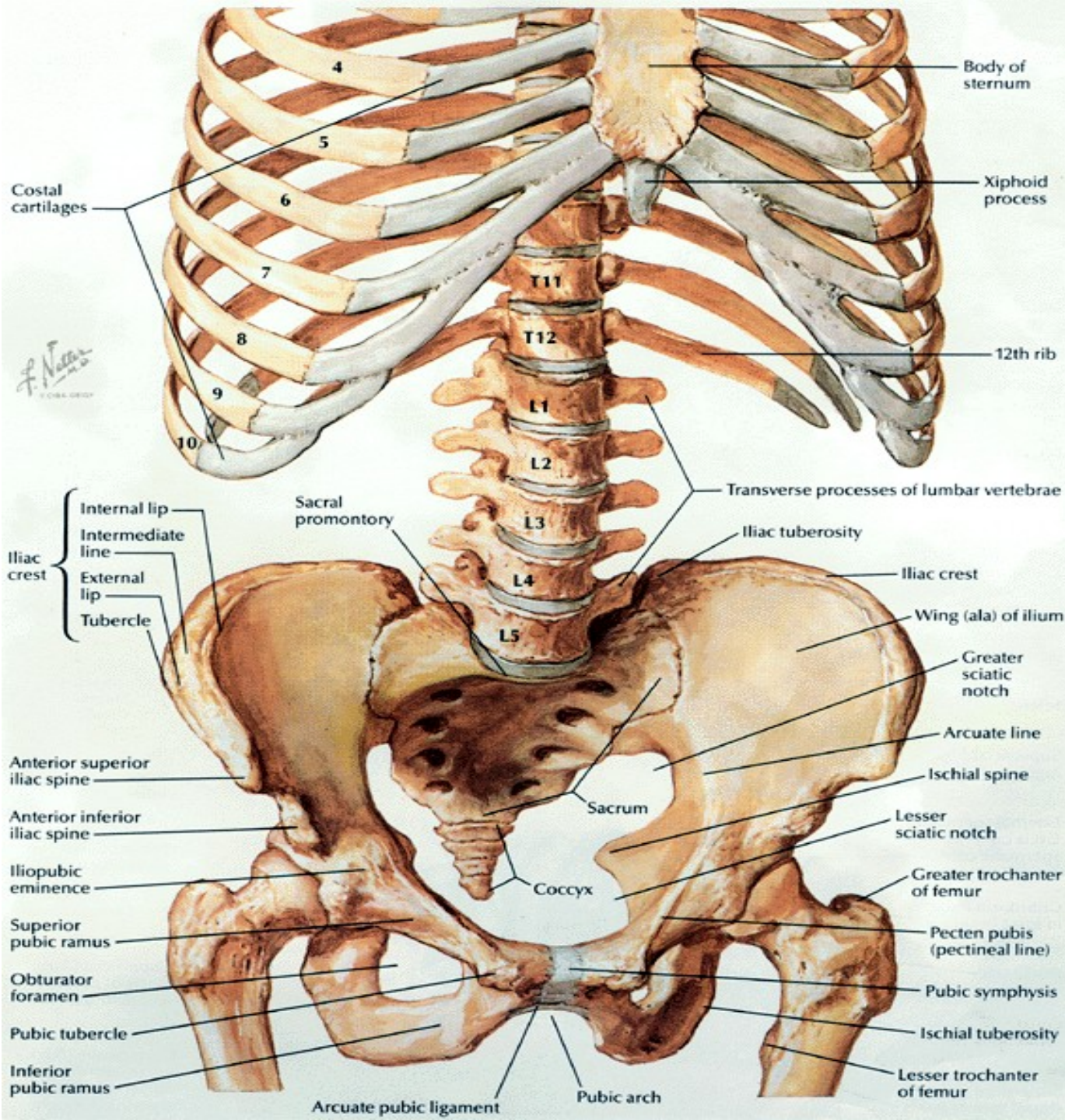
## Surface Anatomy: Abdominal Wall



From left to right:  
McBurney's incision, **linea alba**, **arcuate line**, **linea semilunaris**, **inguinal ligament**.







# Muscles Used in Breathing

- **External intercostals** - Elevates ribs during inspirations
- **Internal intercostals** - Draws adjacent ribs together during forced expiration
- **Diaphragm** - pulls central tendon inferiorly during inspiration, thus increases vertical length of thorax

# Diaphragm forms the Floor of the Thoracic Cavity

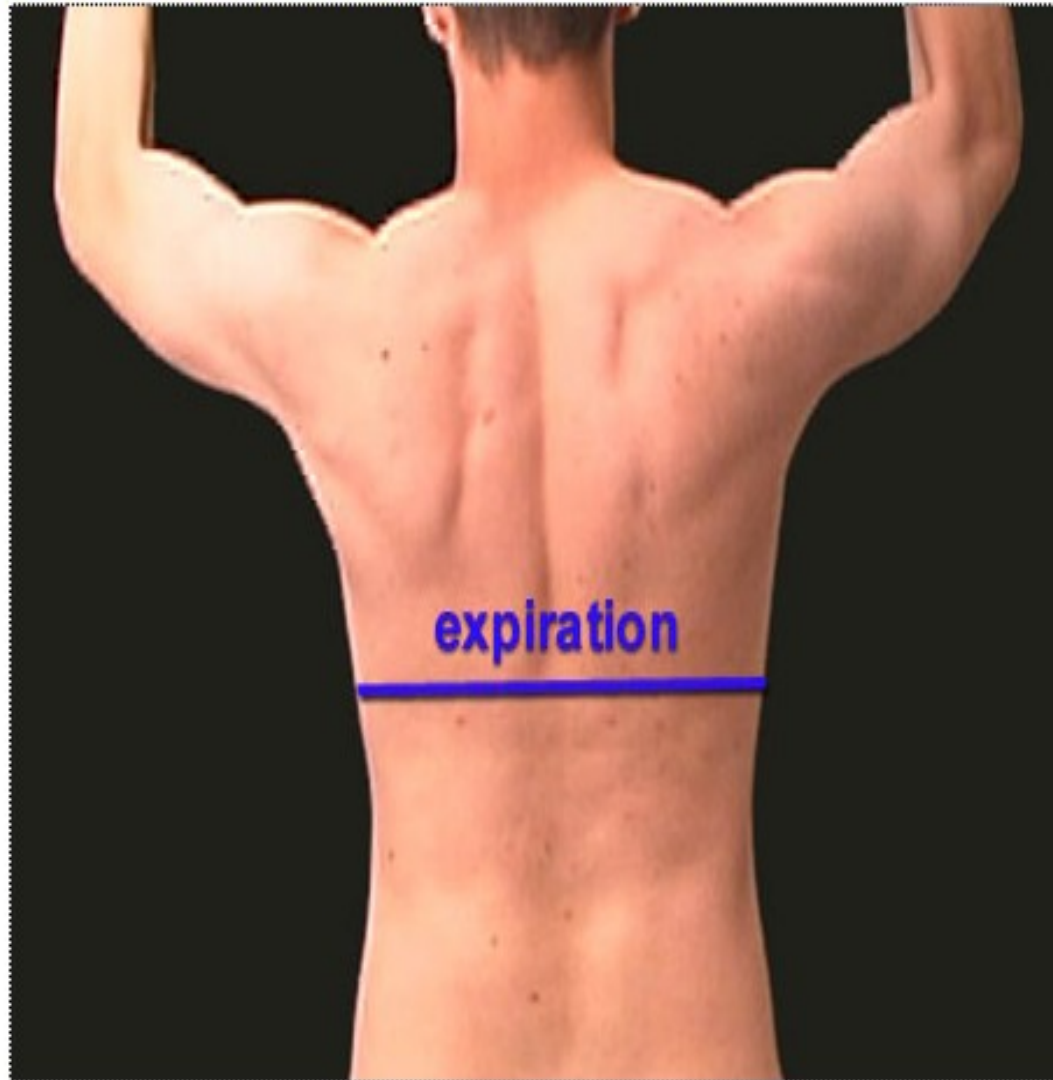
- Diaphragm separates the thoracic and abdominal cavities
  - Dome-shaped muscle
  - Top of “dome” is tendinous

## Surface Anatomy: Diaphragmatic Dullness





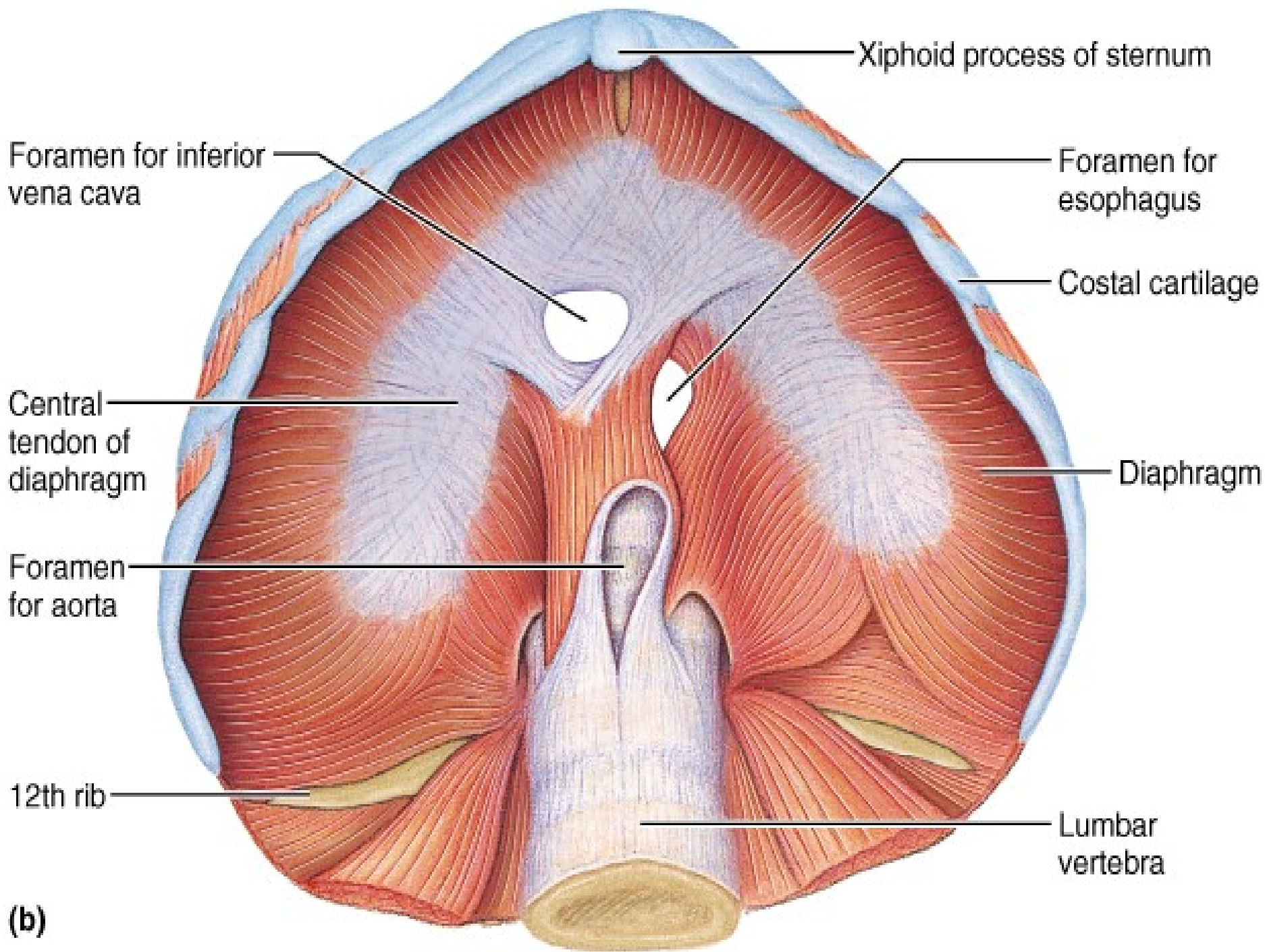
## Surface Anatomy: Diaphragmatic Dullness



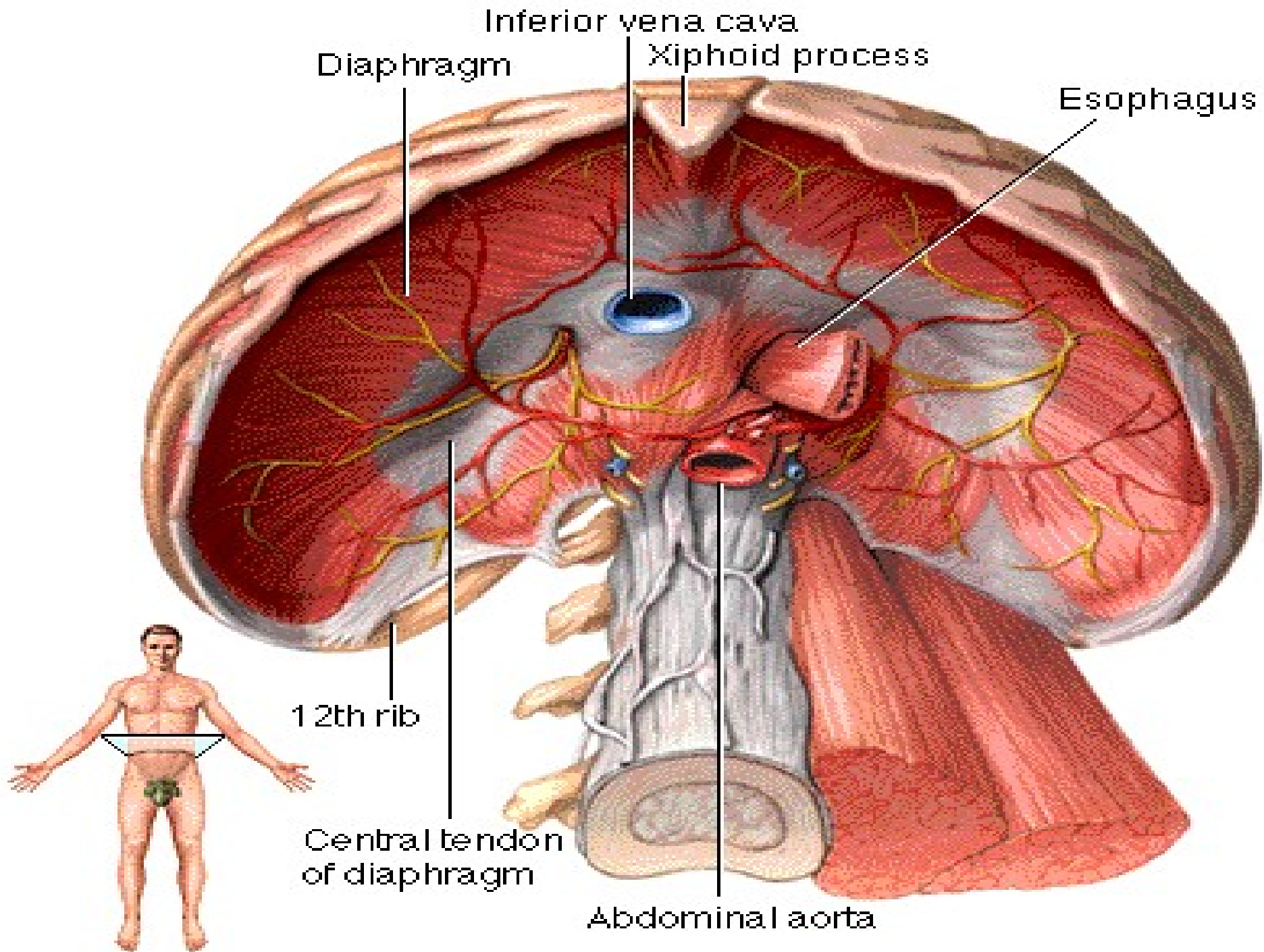
Note the level of dullness rises as more diaphragmatic muscle contacts the posterior abdominal wall.

# DIAPHRAGM

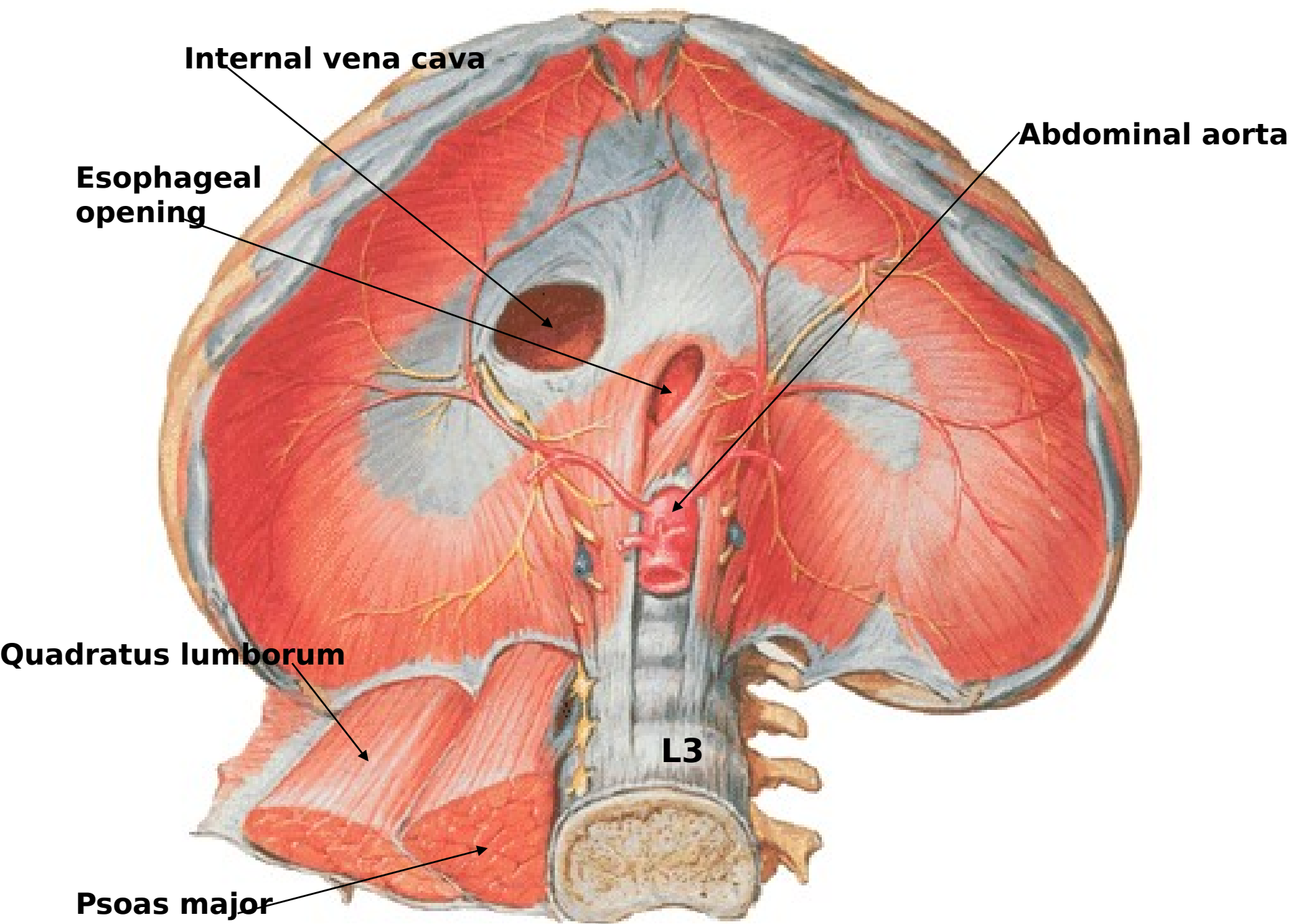
- Attachment
  - Upper 3 lumbar vertebrae
  - Ribs 7 to 12
  - Xiphoid process
- Central tendon
  - Pierced by Aorta, Esophagus, Inferior vena cava
- Innervation: phrenic n (C<sub>3-5</sub>)



(b)

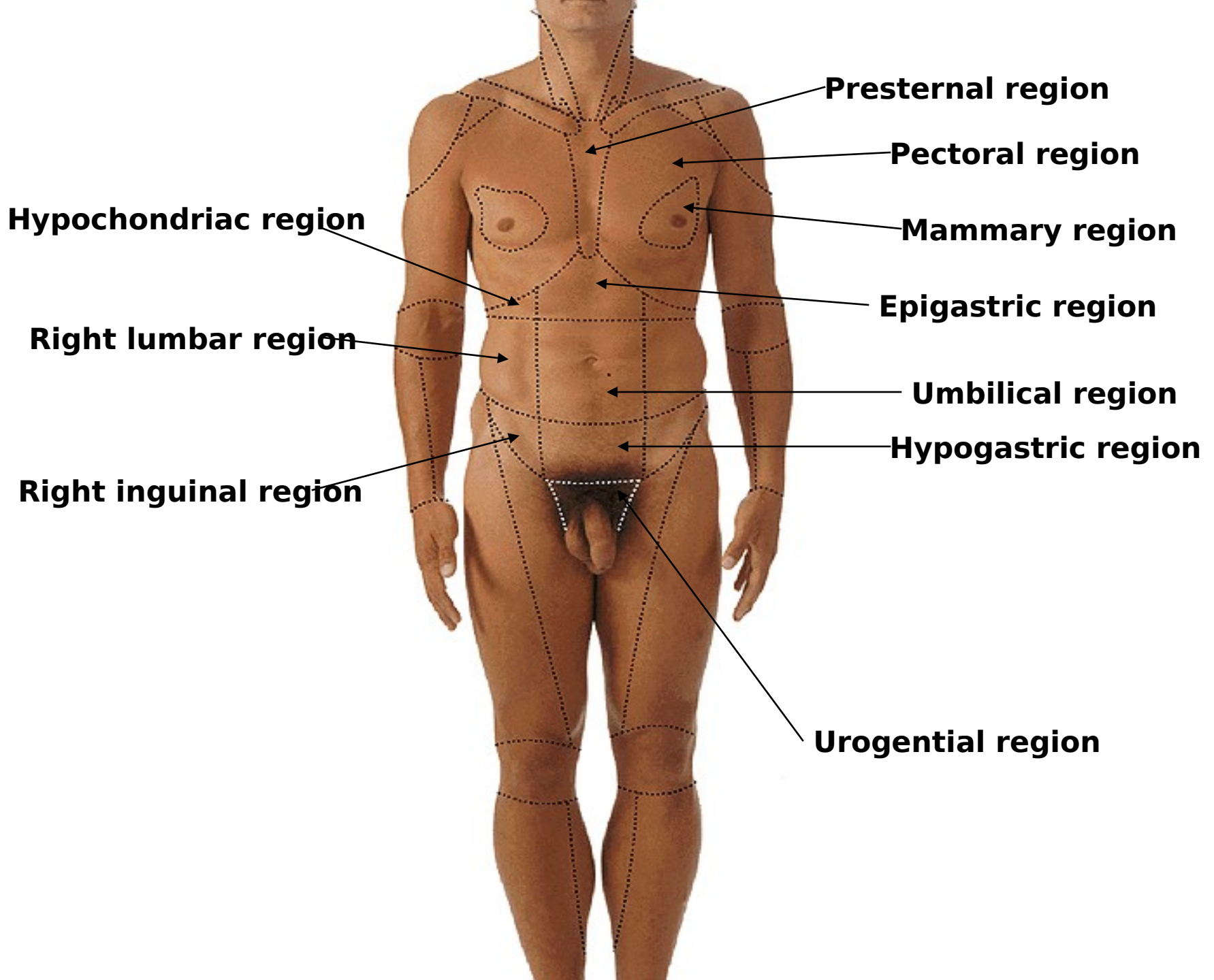




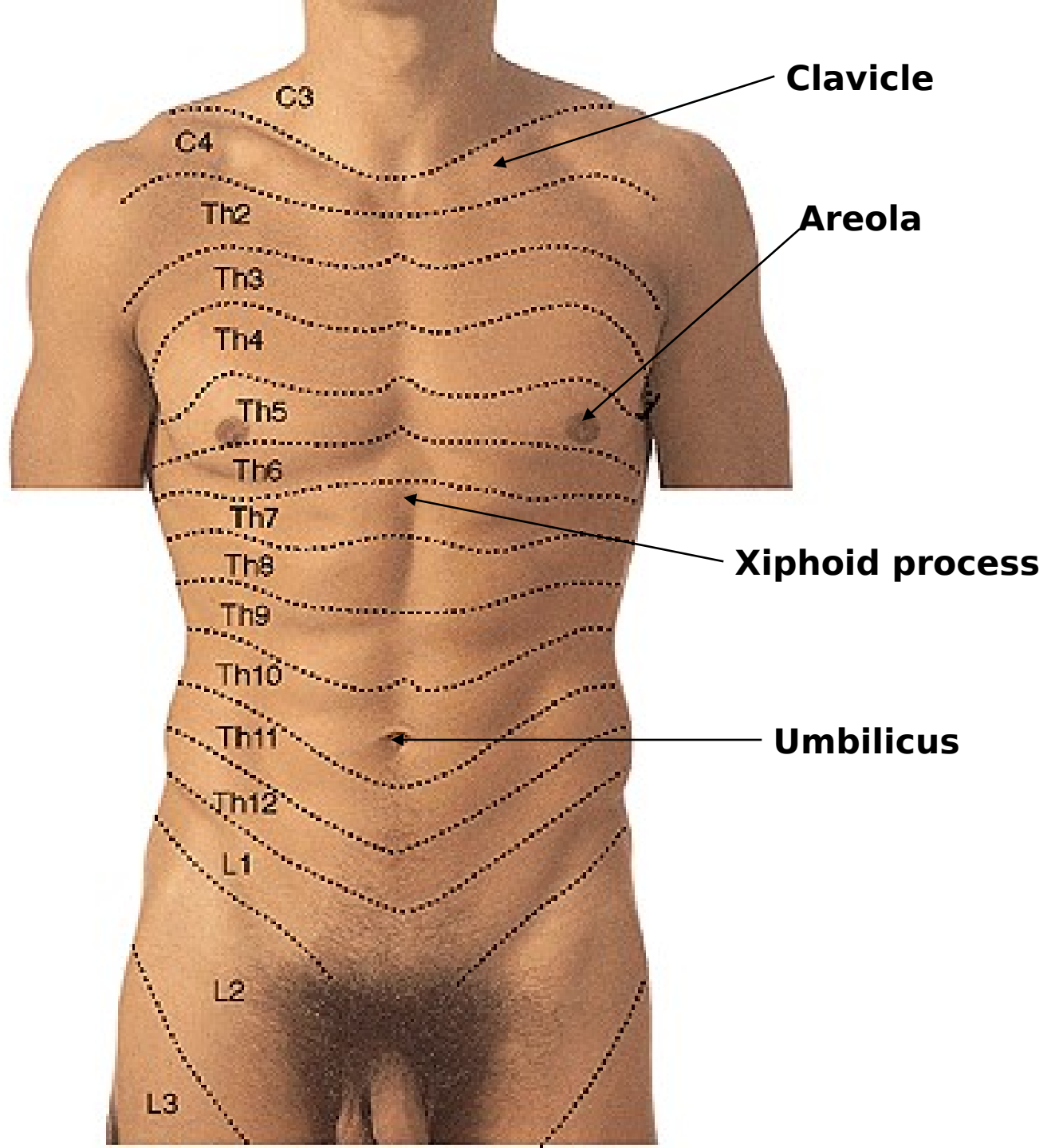


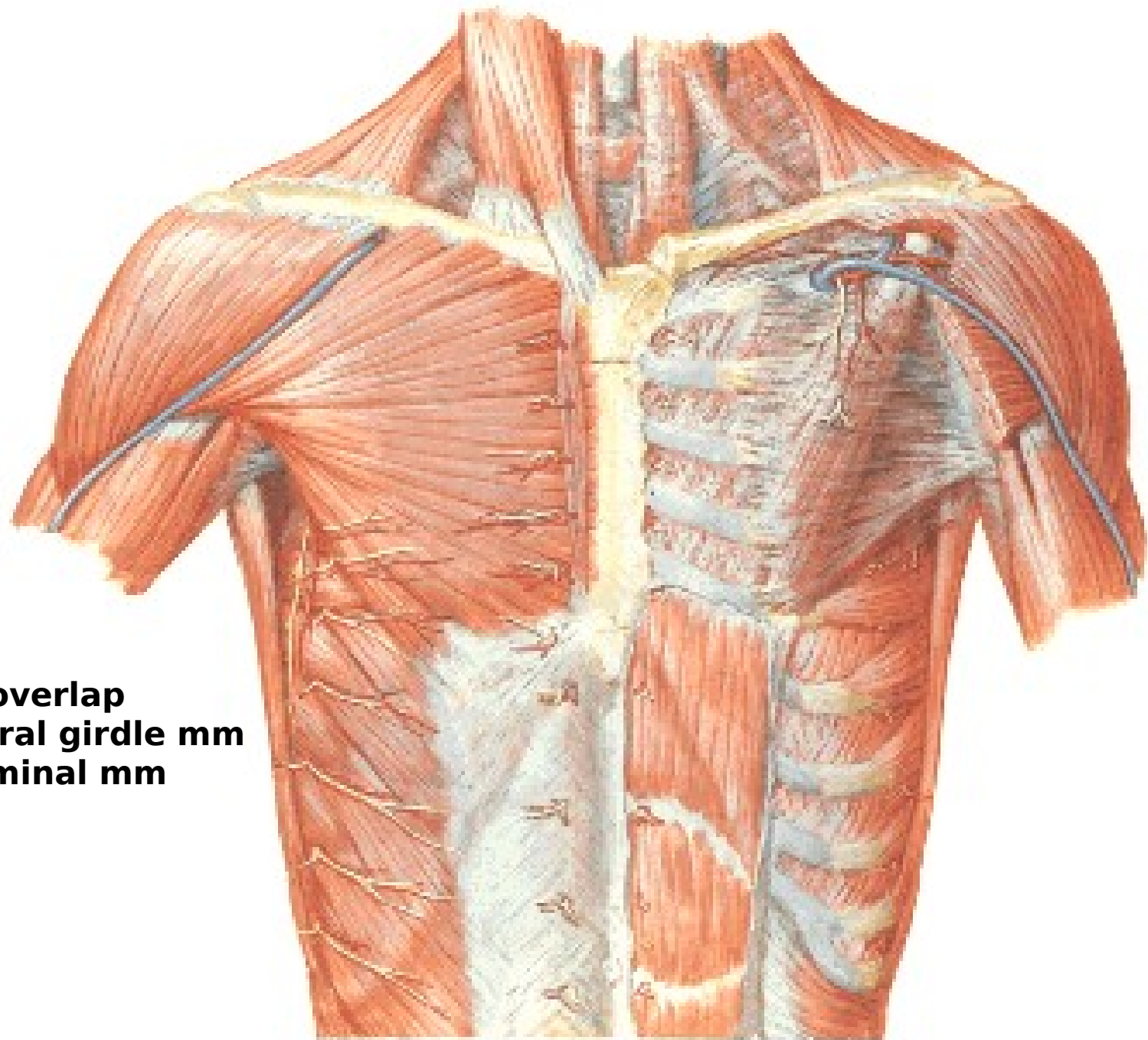
# TRUNK MUSCLES: ABDOMEN

# REVIEW OF TRUNK SURFACE ANATOMY





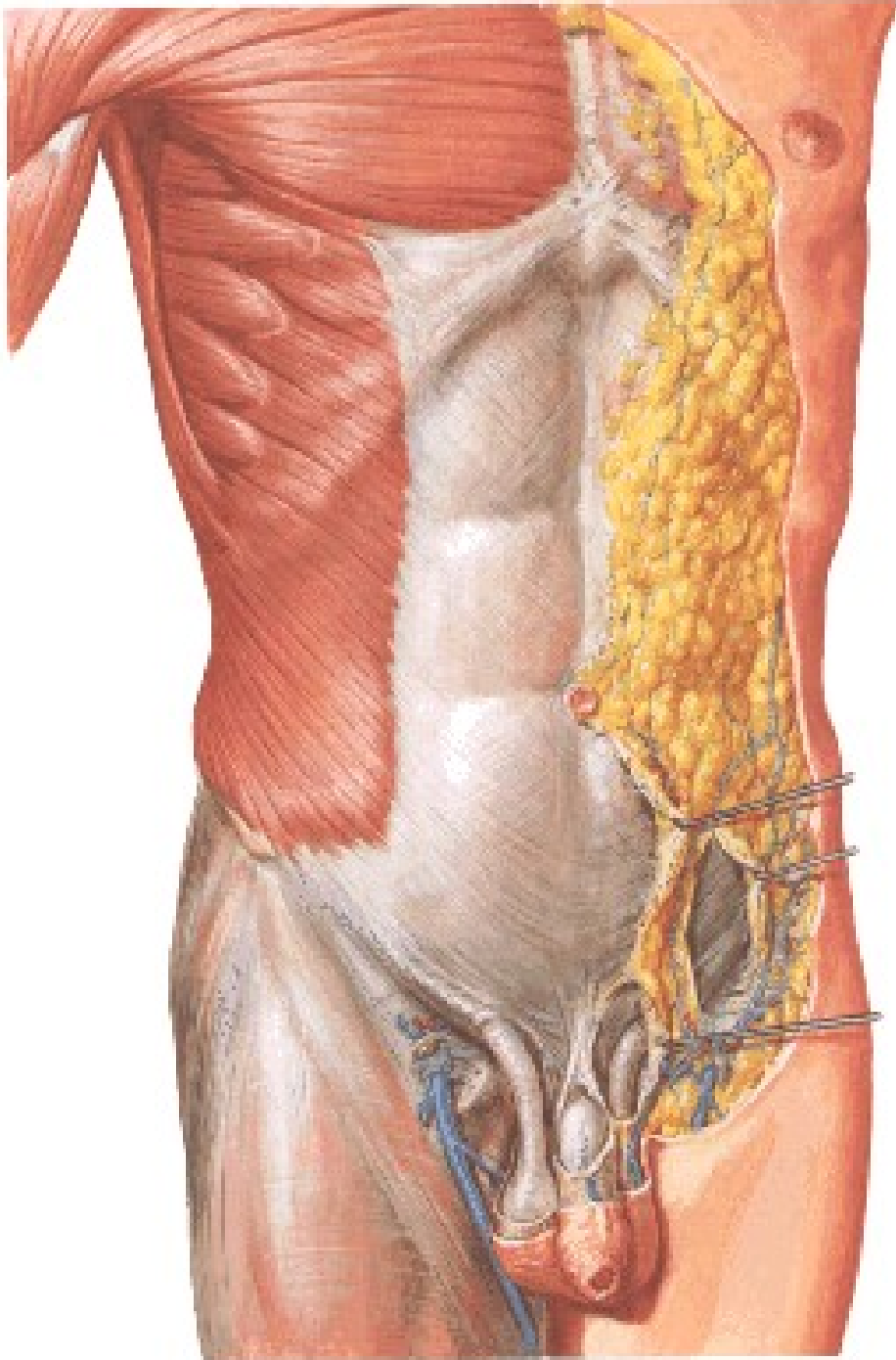




**Muscle overlap**  
- pectoral girdle mm  
- abdominal mm

# ABDOMINAL LAYERS

- Skin
- Superficial fascia
  - Camper's fascia
  - Scarpa's fascia
- Deep fascia
- Muscle layers
- Transversalis fascia
- Peritoneum





# ABDOMINAL MUSCLE LAYERS

- External oblique (EO)
- Internal oblique (IO)
- Transversus abdominis (TA)
- Rectus abdominis (RA)
  - Linea alba

# Muscles That Act On The Abdominal Wall

- Rectus abdominis -Flexes vertebral column & compresses abdomen
- External & Internal oblique -Compresses & lateral bend & rotates vertebral column
- Transversus abdominis -Compresses abdomen

Serratus anterior

Pectoralis major

Linea alba

Tendinous intersection

Transversus abdominis

Rectus abdominis

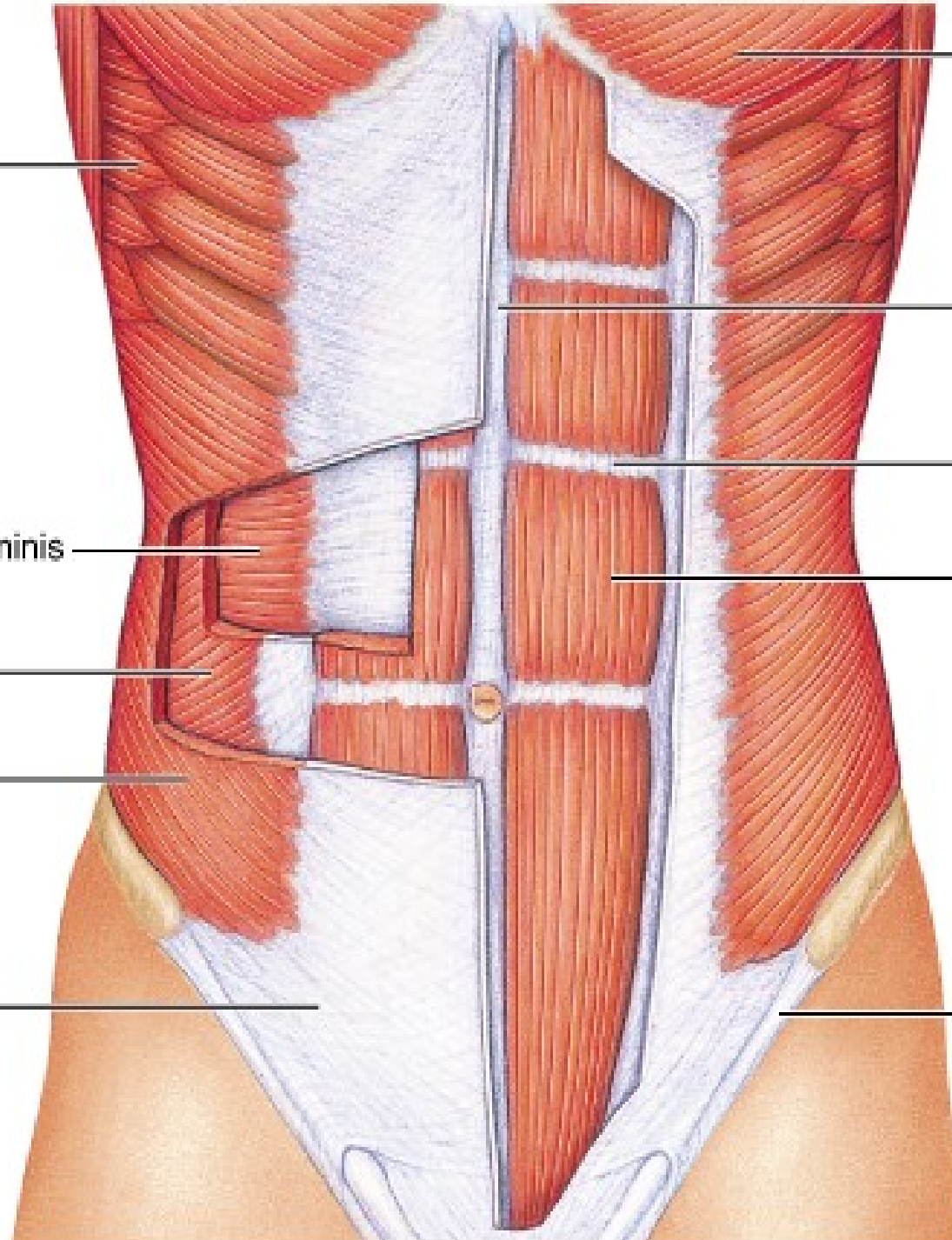
Internal oblique

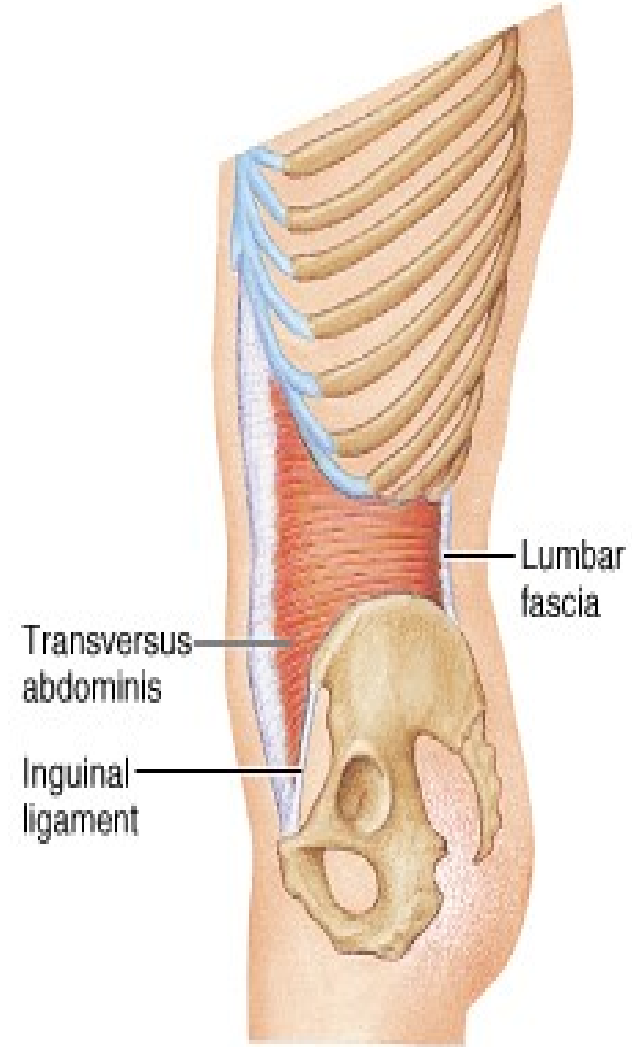
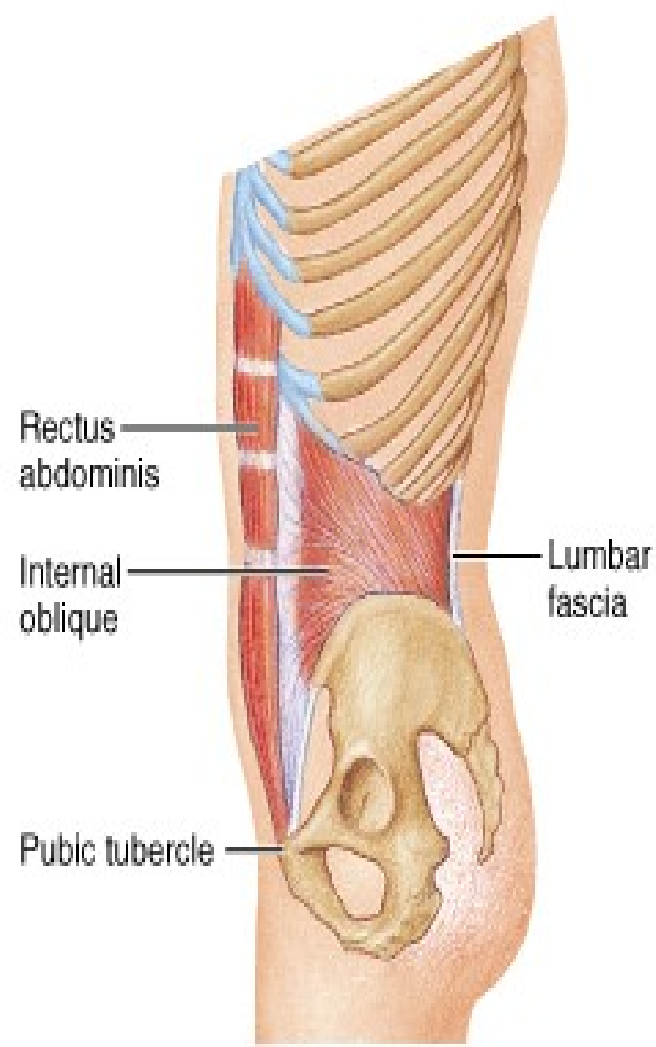
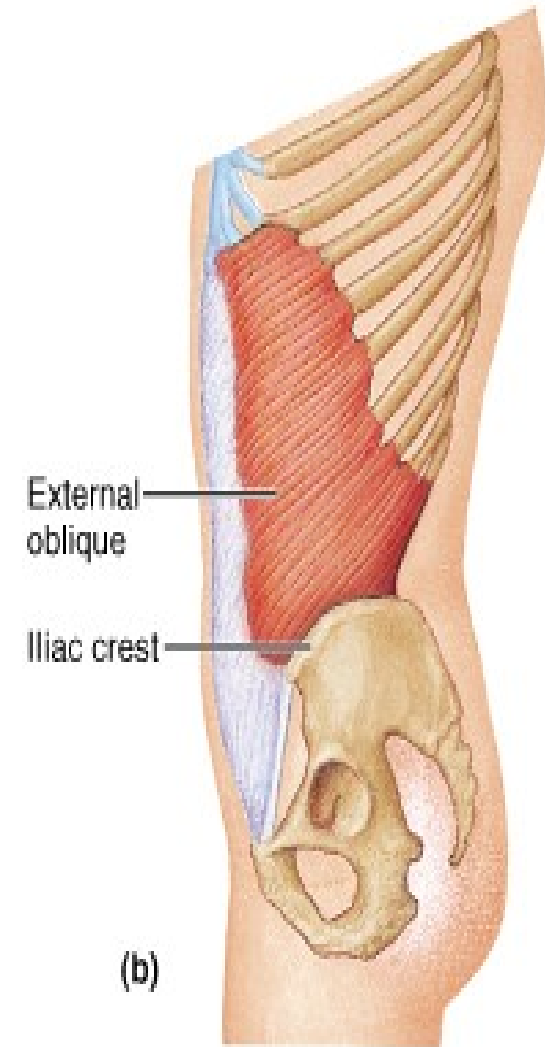
External oblique

Aponeurosis  
of the external  
oblique

Inguinal ligament  
(formed by free inferior  
border of the external  
oblique aponeurosis)

(a)

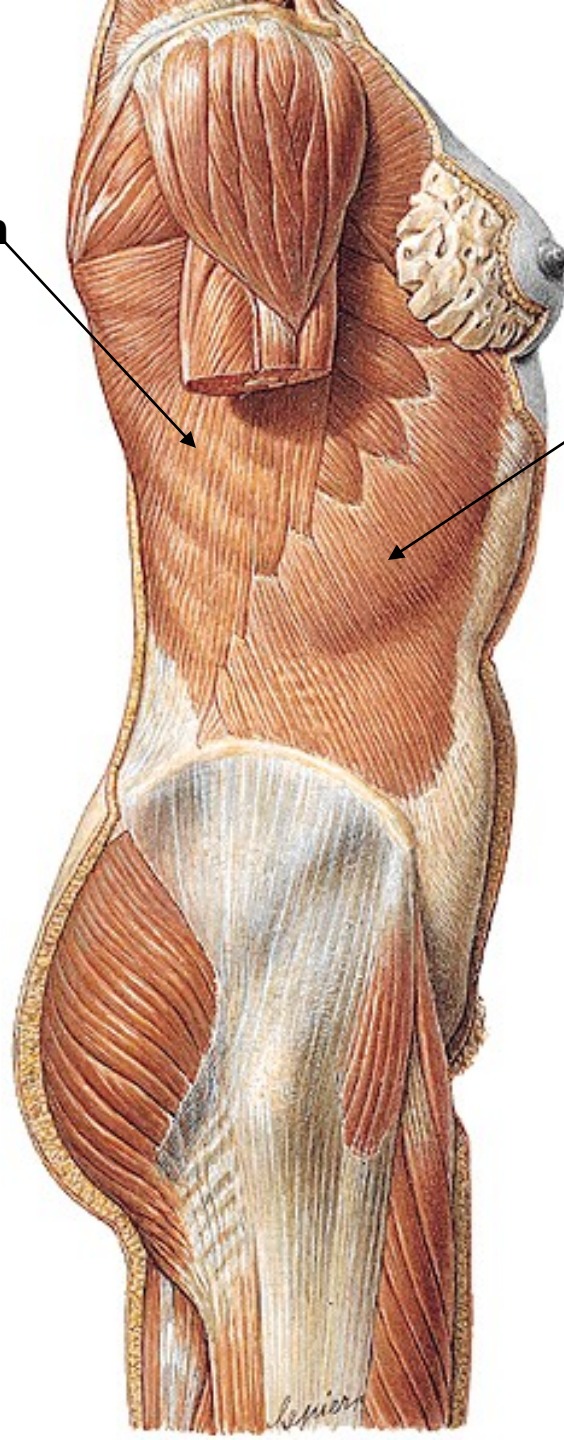


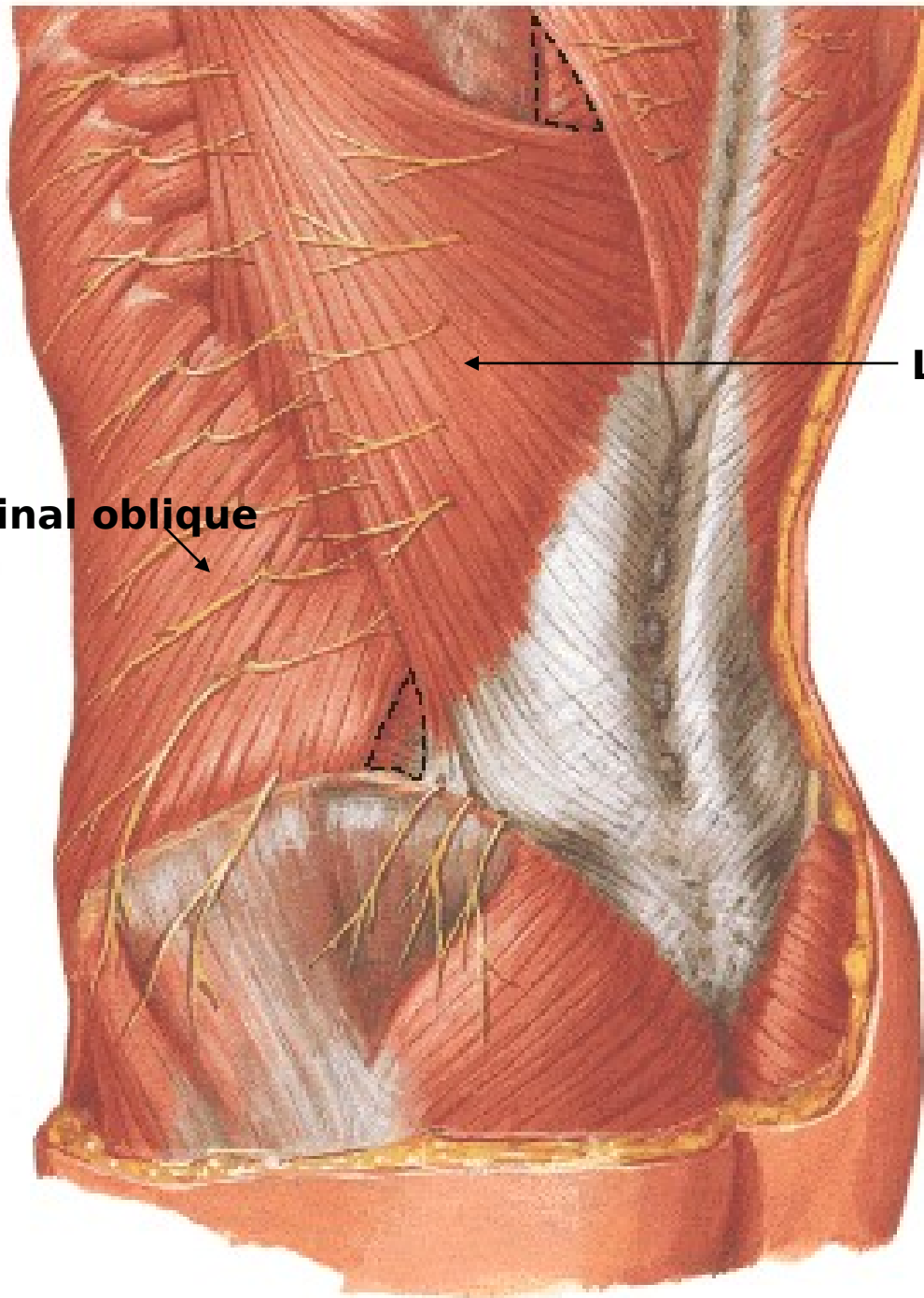




**Latissimus dorsi m**

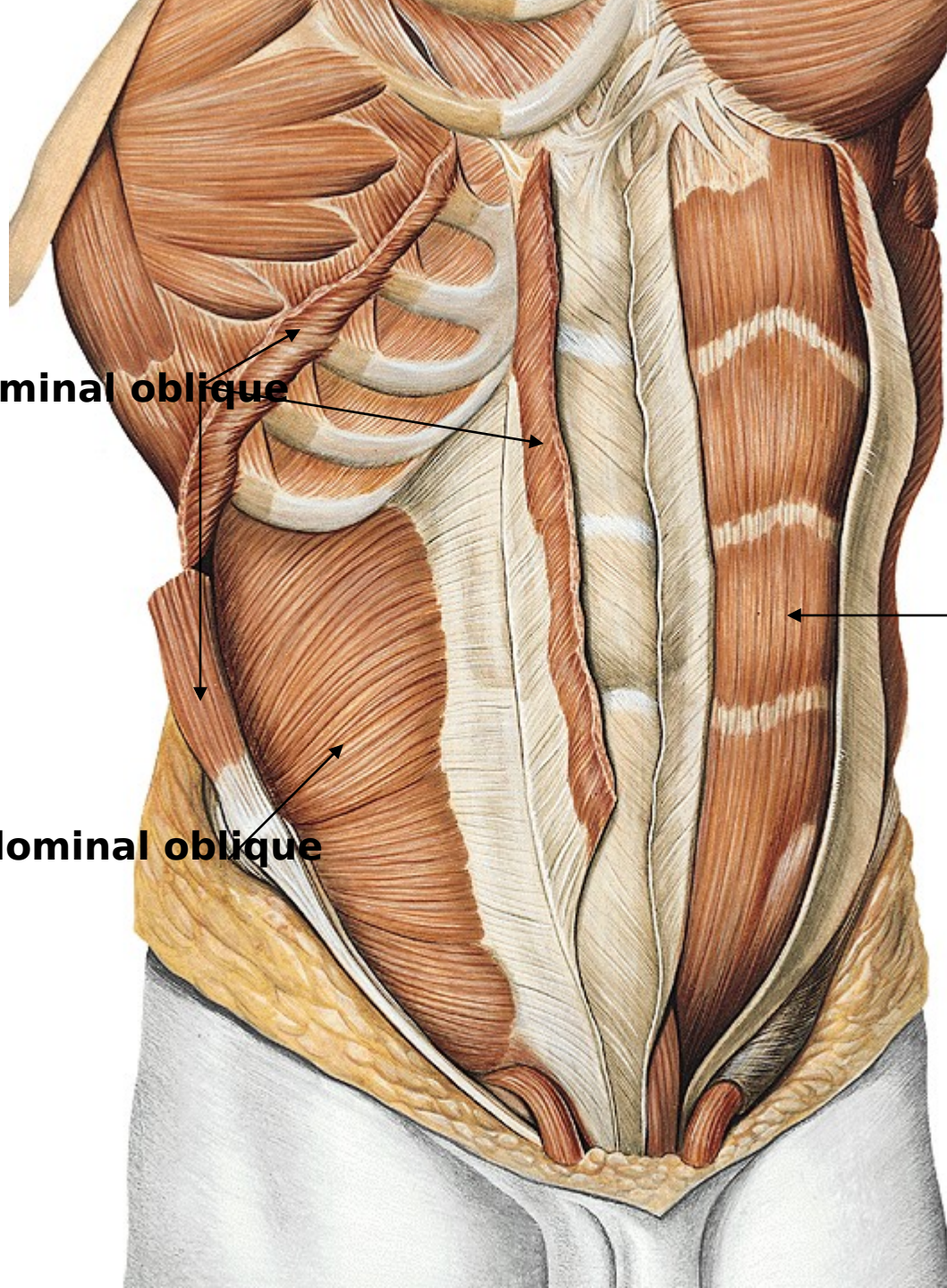
**External abdominal oblique**





**Latissimus dorsi m**

**External abdominal oblique**

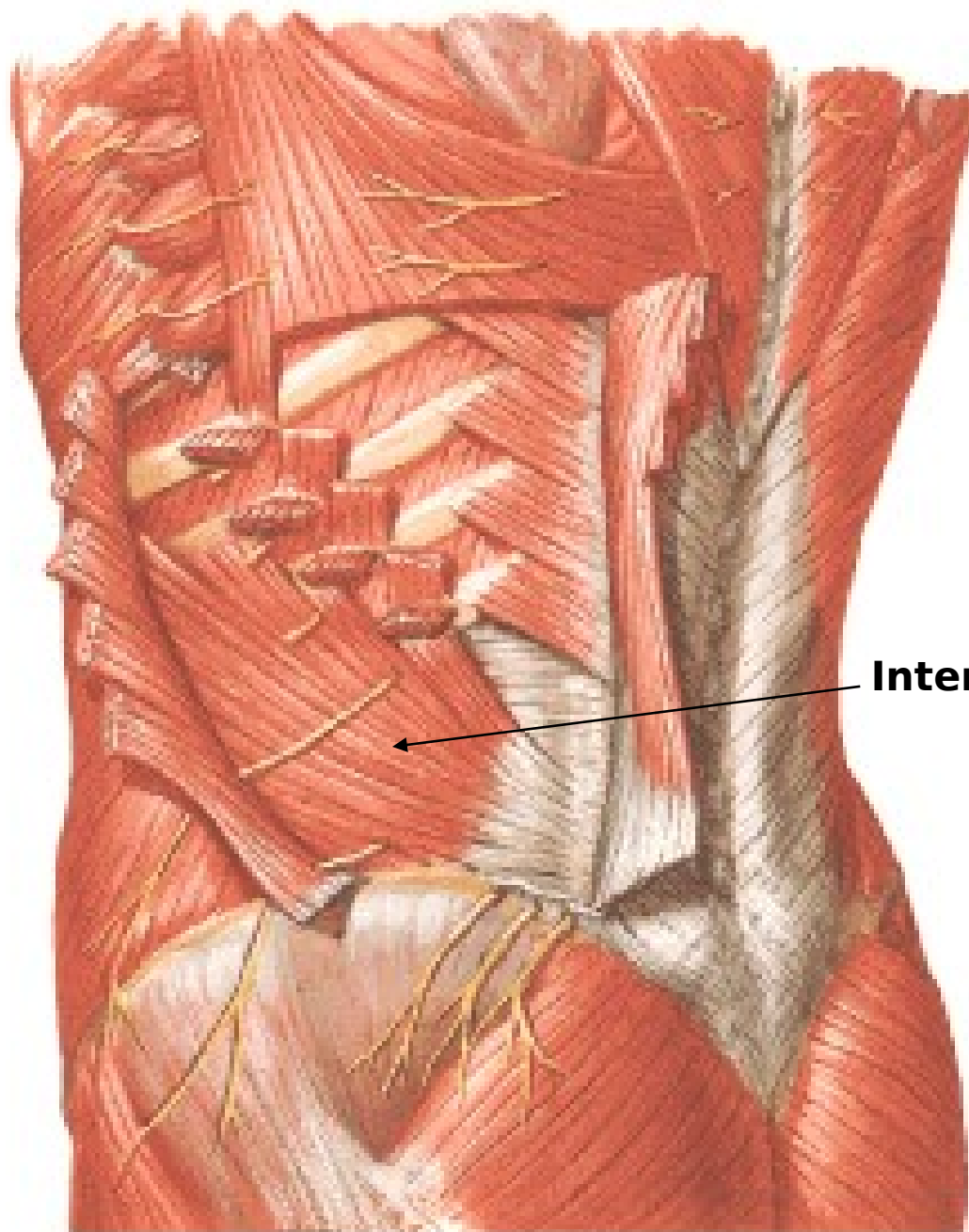


**External abdominal oblique**

**Rectus abdominis**

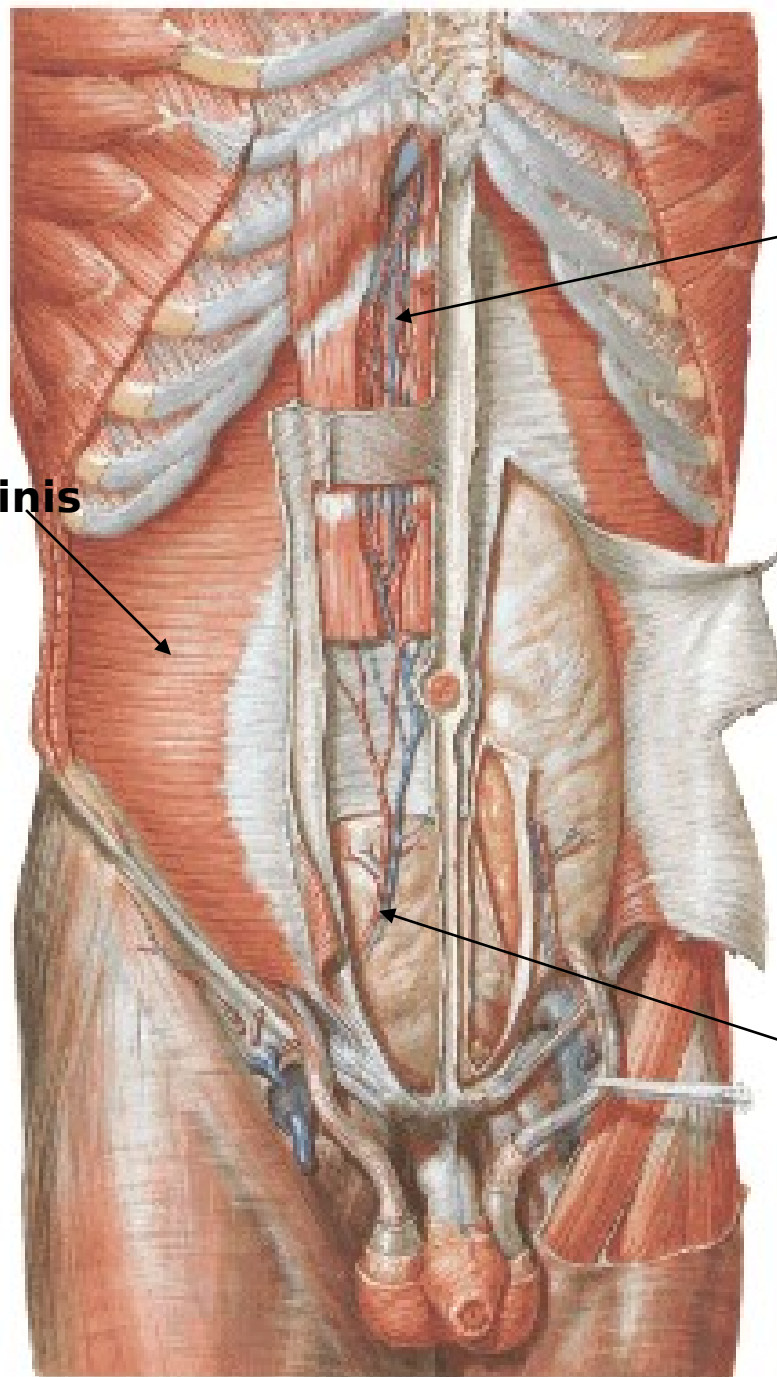
**Internal abdominal oblique**





**Internal abdominal obli**

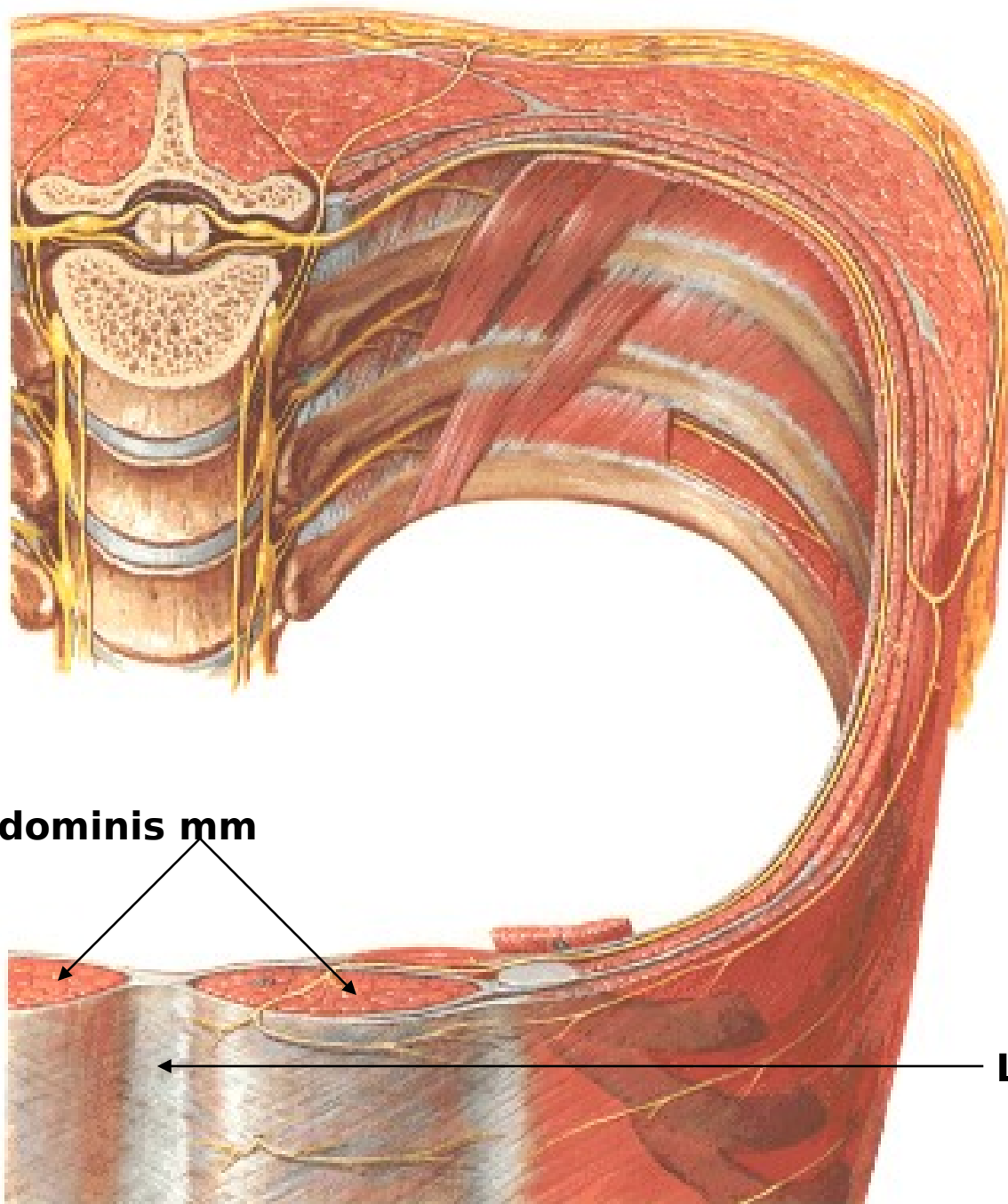




**Superior epigastric a**

**Transversus abdominis**

**Inferior epigastric a &**

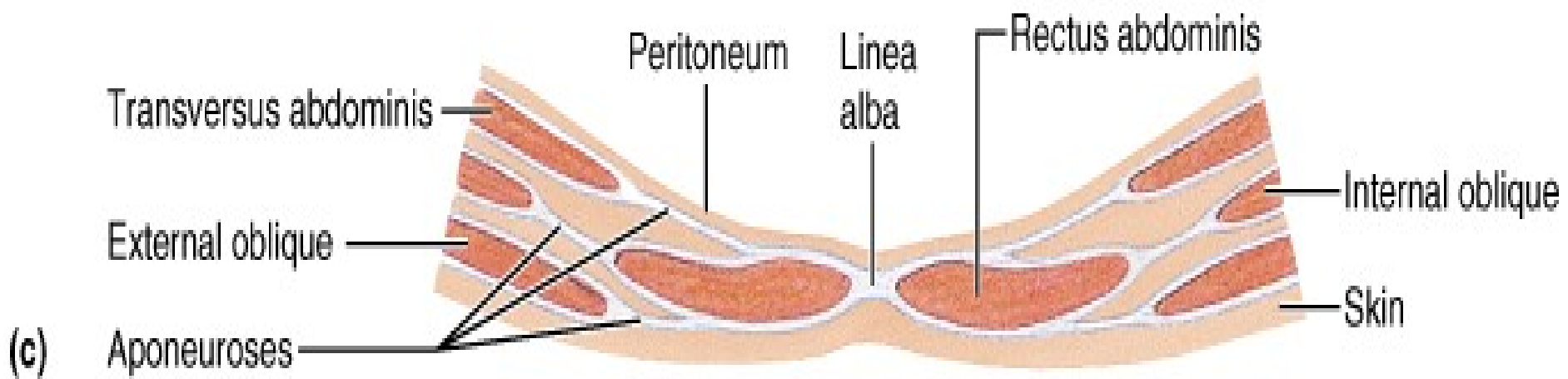


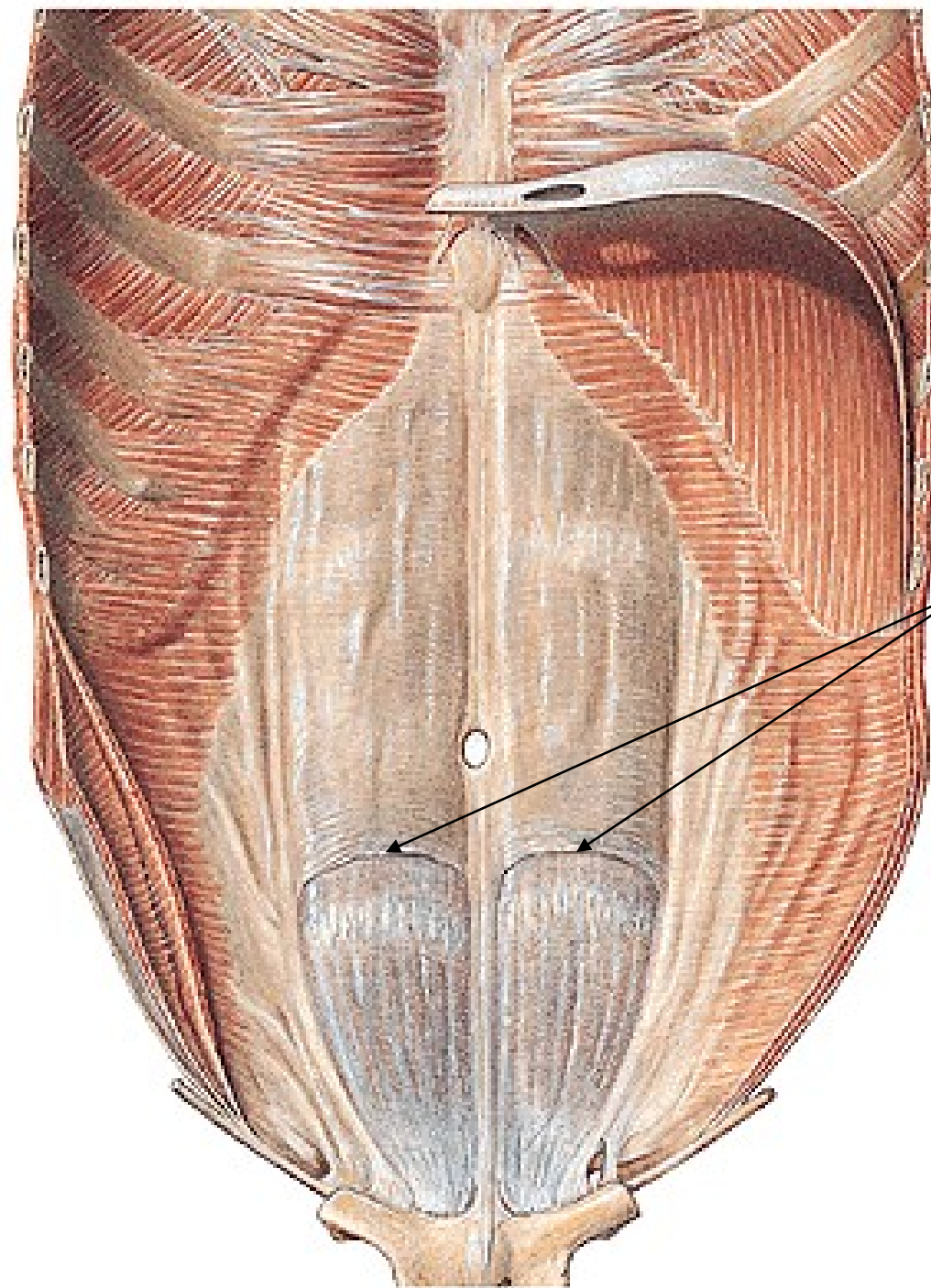
**Rectus abdominis mm**



**Linea alba**



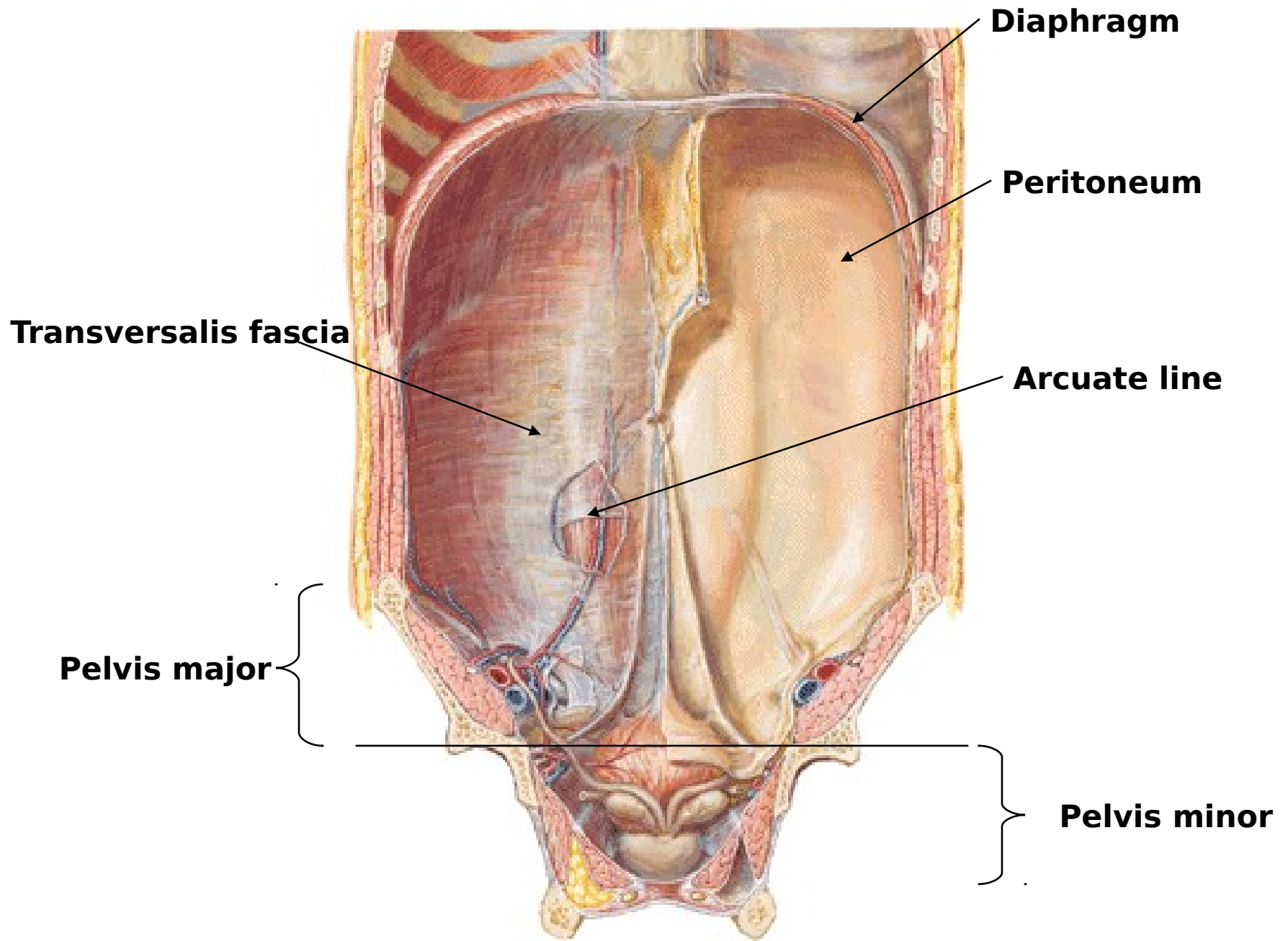


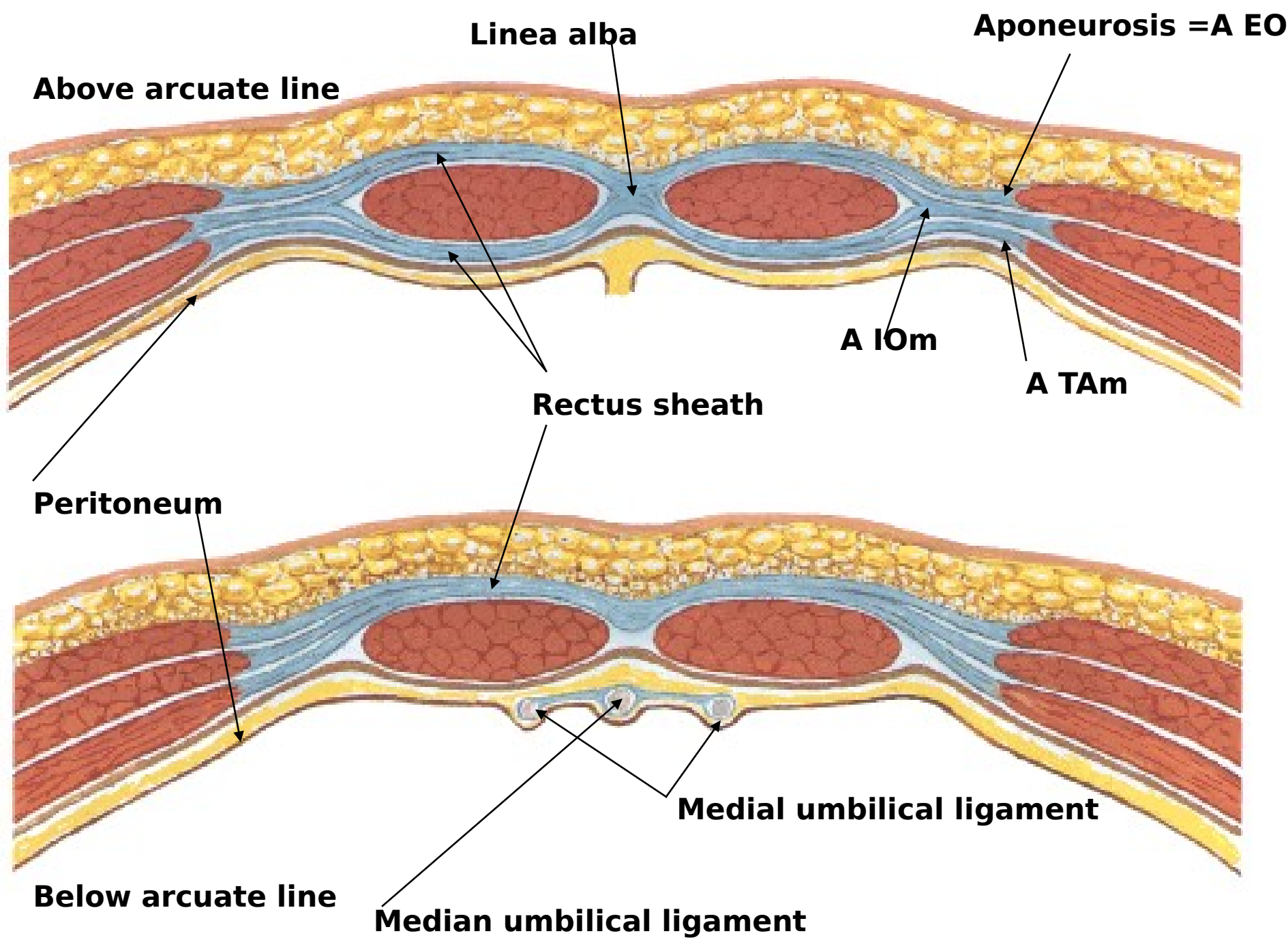


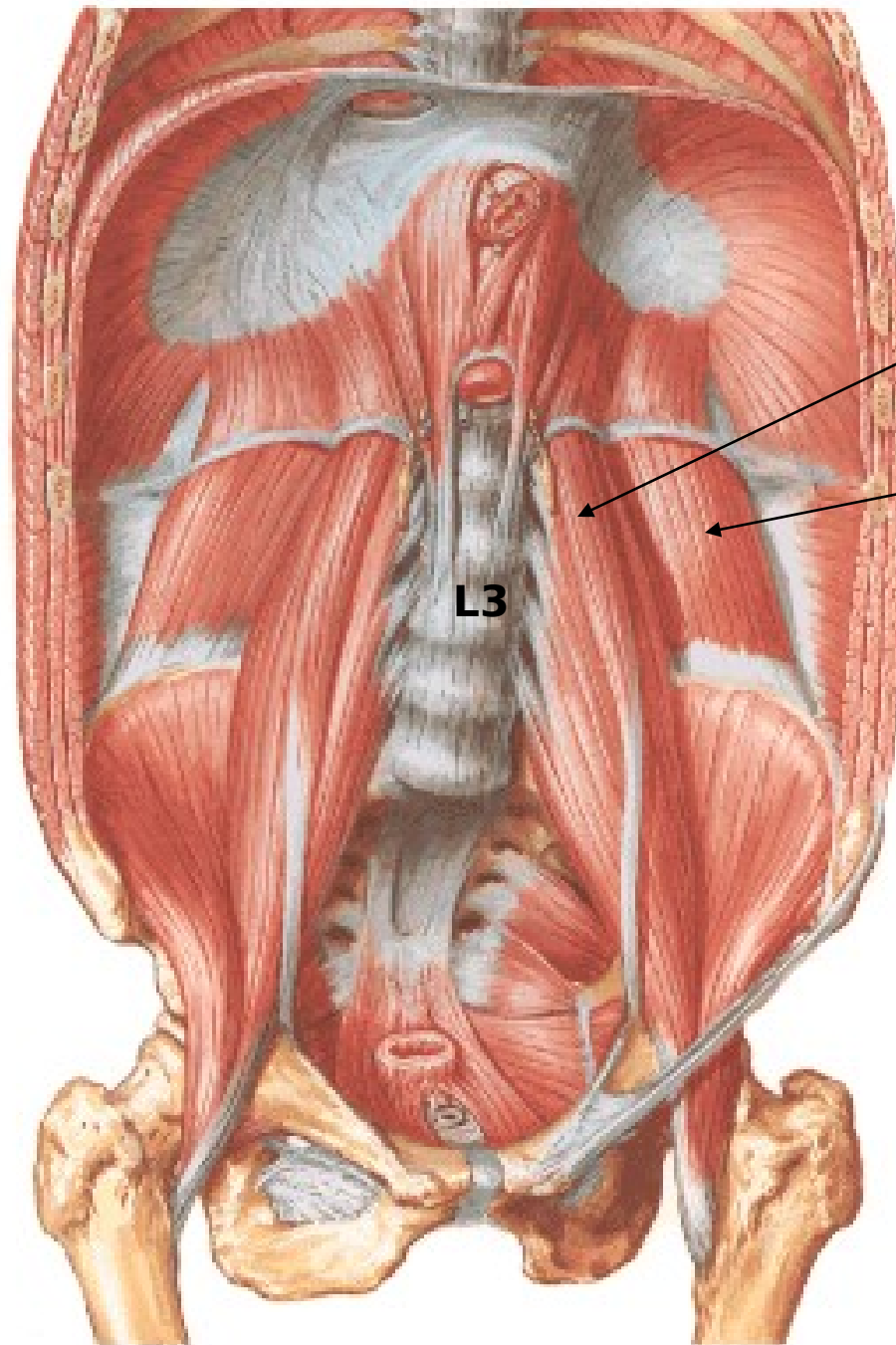
**Arcuate line**



# Internal View







**Psoas**

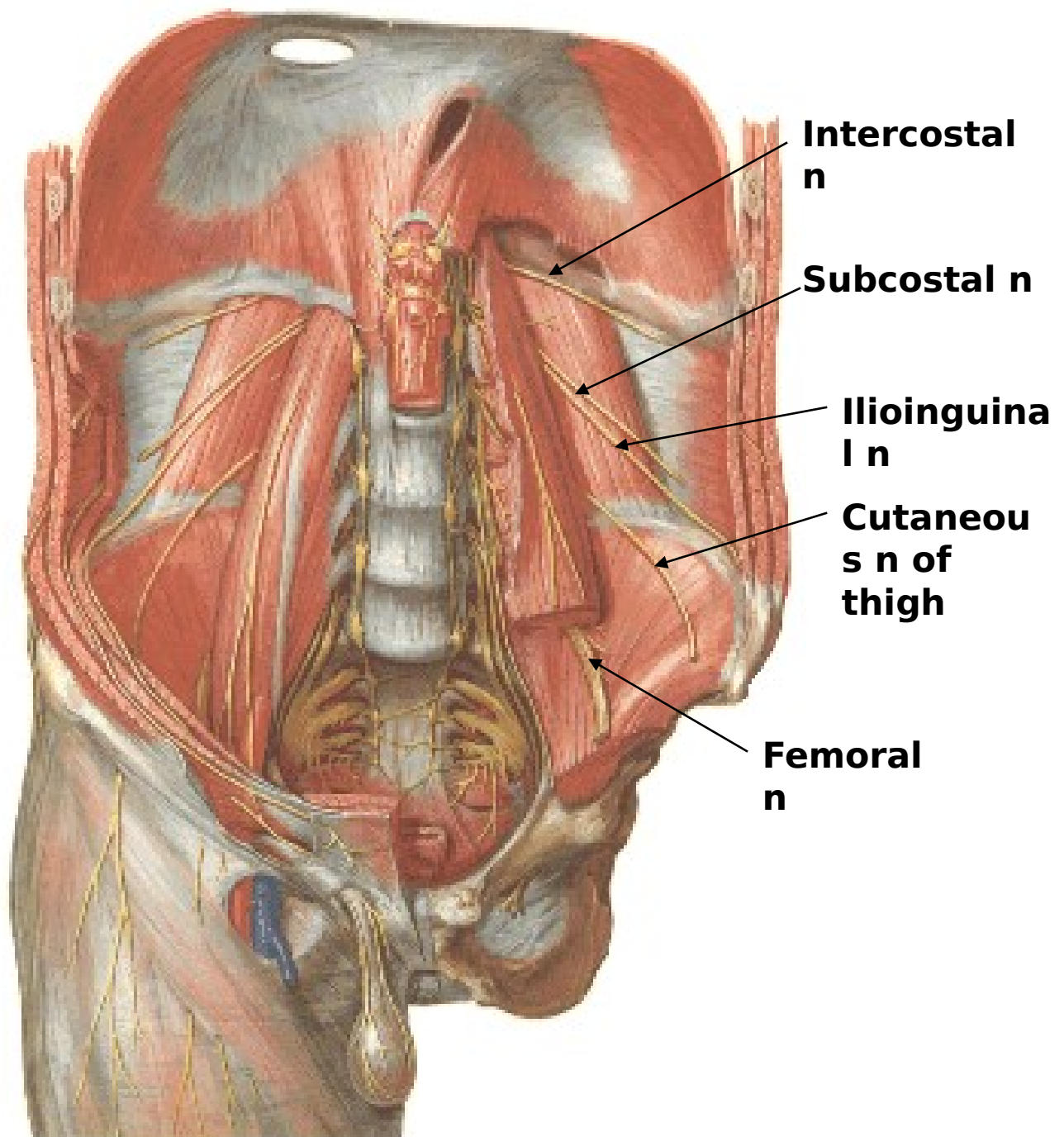
**Quadratus lumborum**

**L3**

# Innervation

- EO - inferior six thoracic nn & subcostal n
- IO & TA - inferior six thoracic nn & first lumbar nn
- RA - inferior six thoracic nn

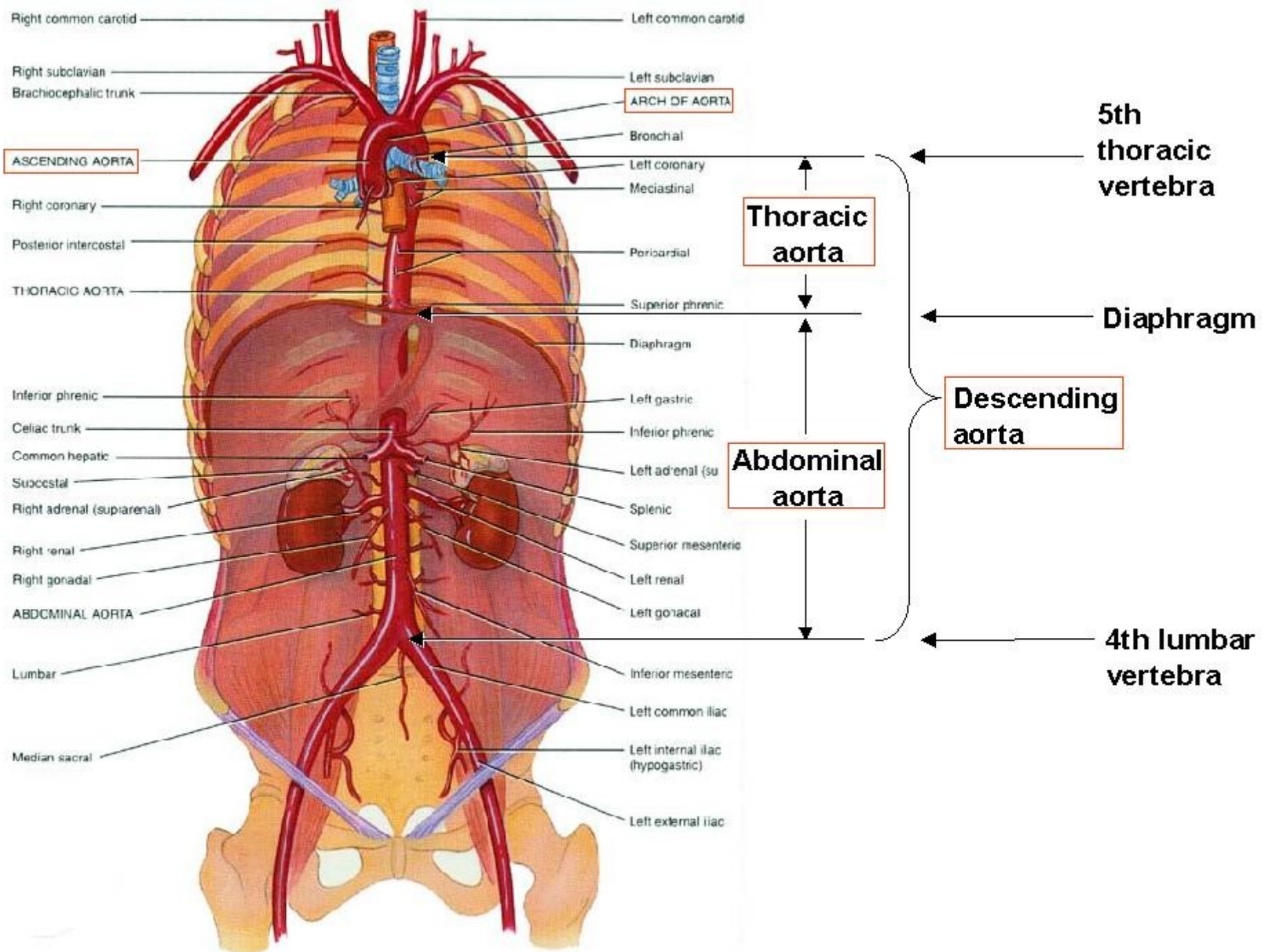




# BLOOD VESSELS

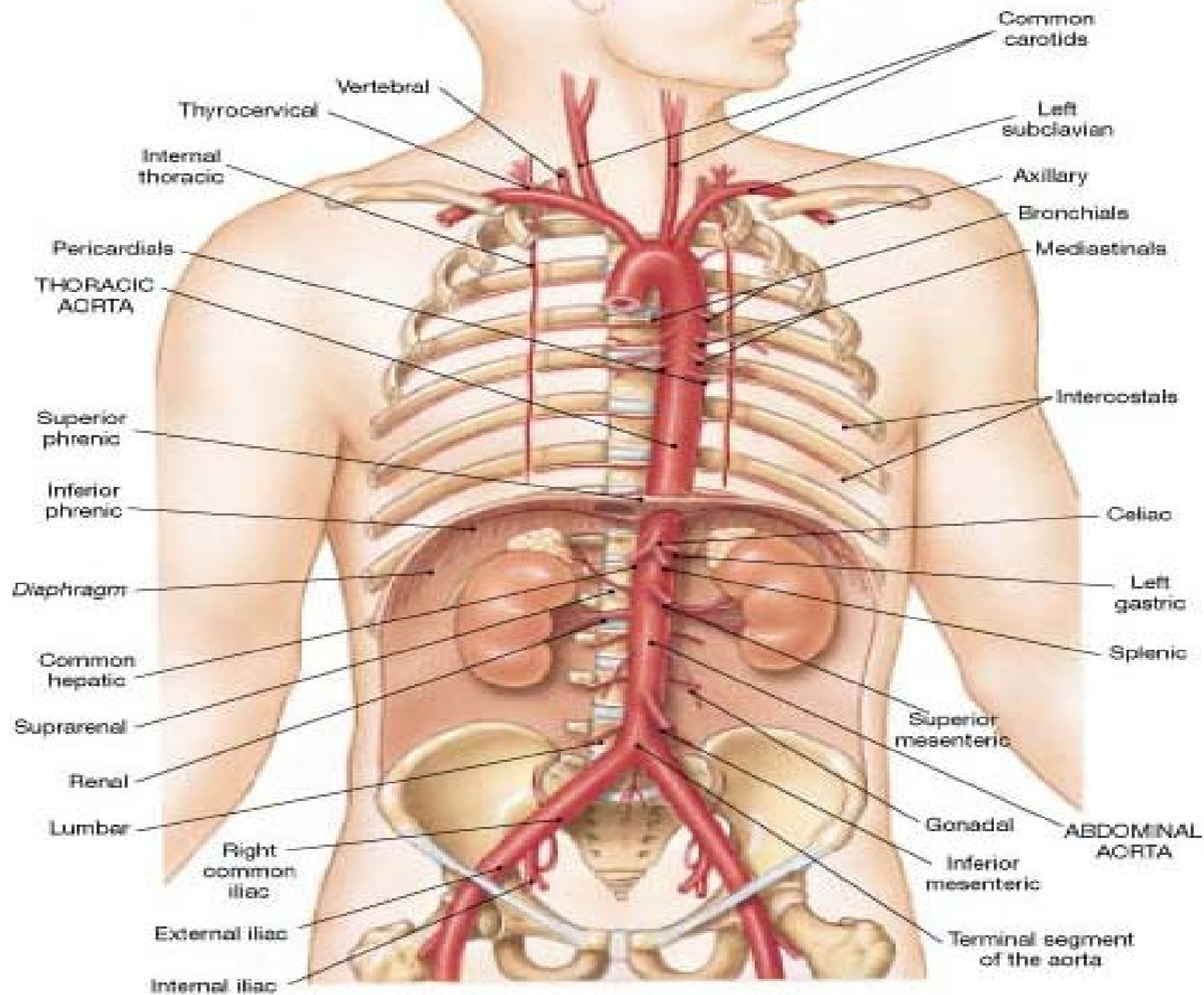
# ABDOMINAL VESSELS

- Aorta
  - Pre/Paravertebral branches
- Iliac aa
  - Int/External iliac aa
- Inferior epigastric
- Superior epigastric

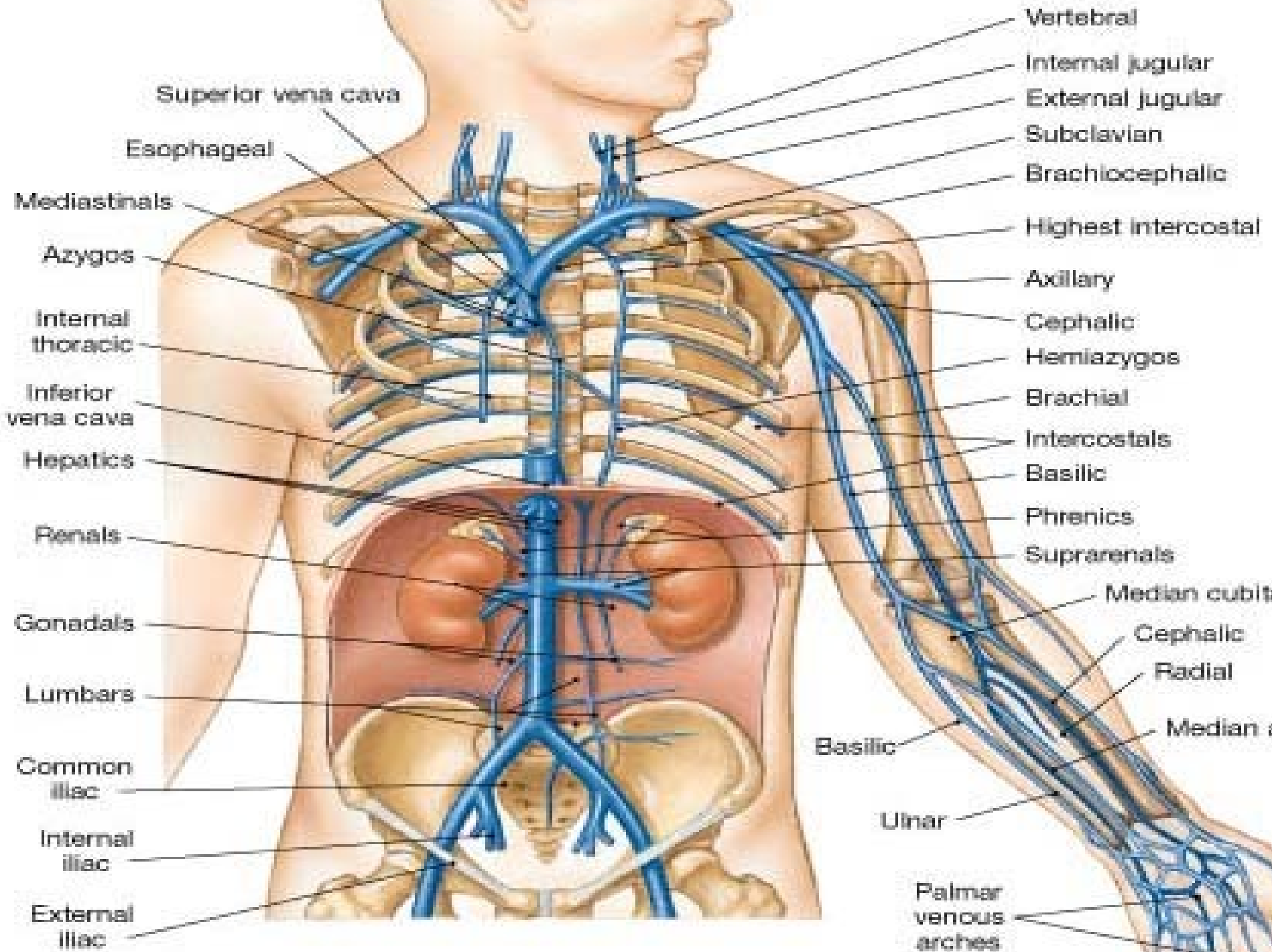


(b) Detailed anterior view





# SUPERFICIAL VEINS



# LYMPHATICS



**Regional lymph nodes:**

Cervical nodes

Axillary nodes

Inguinal nodes

Entrance of right lymphatic duct into right subclavian vein

Internal jugular vein

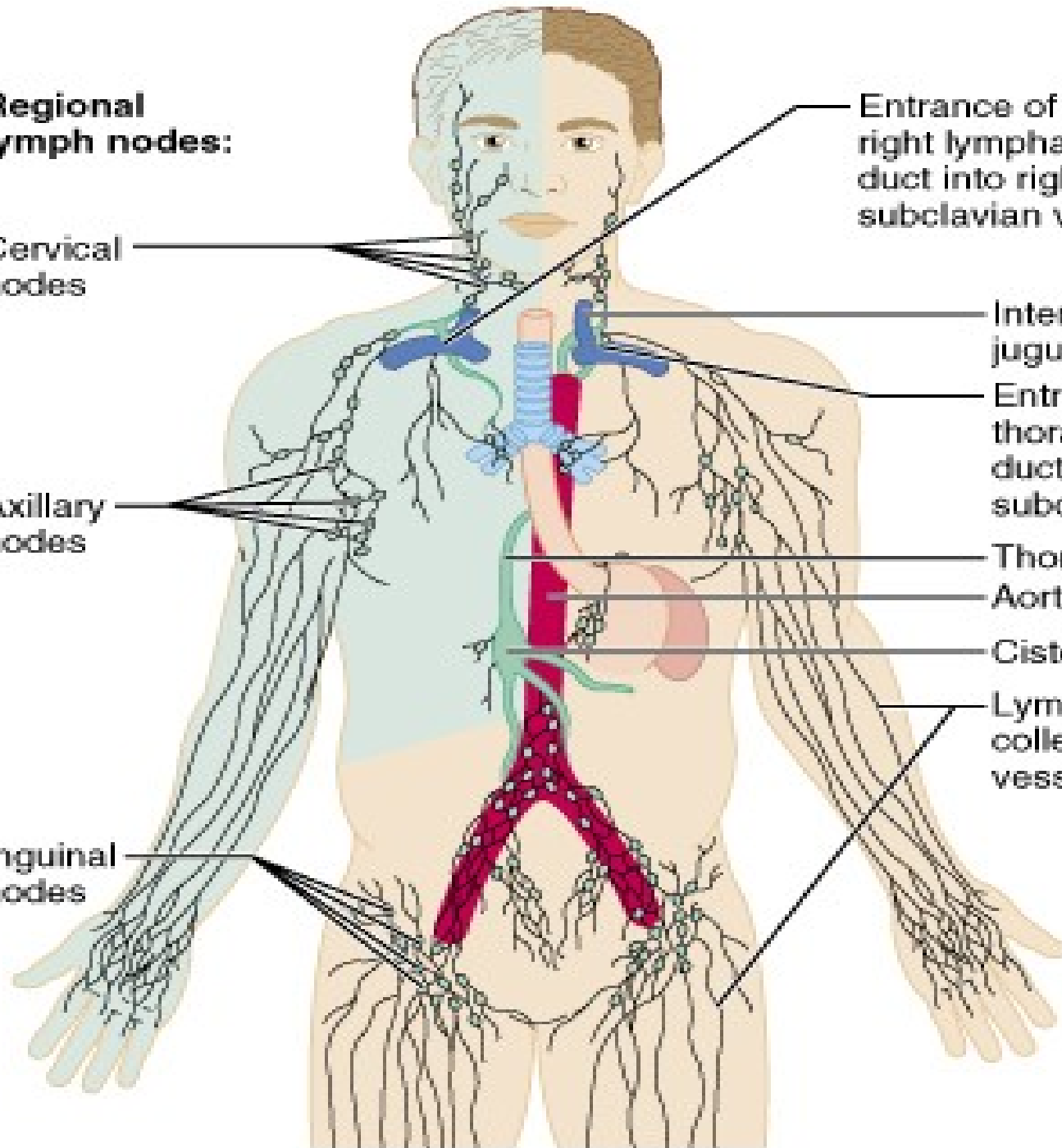
Entrance of thoracic duct into left subclavian vein

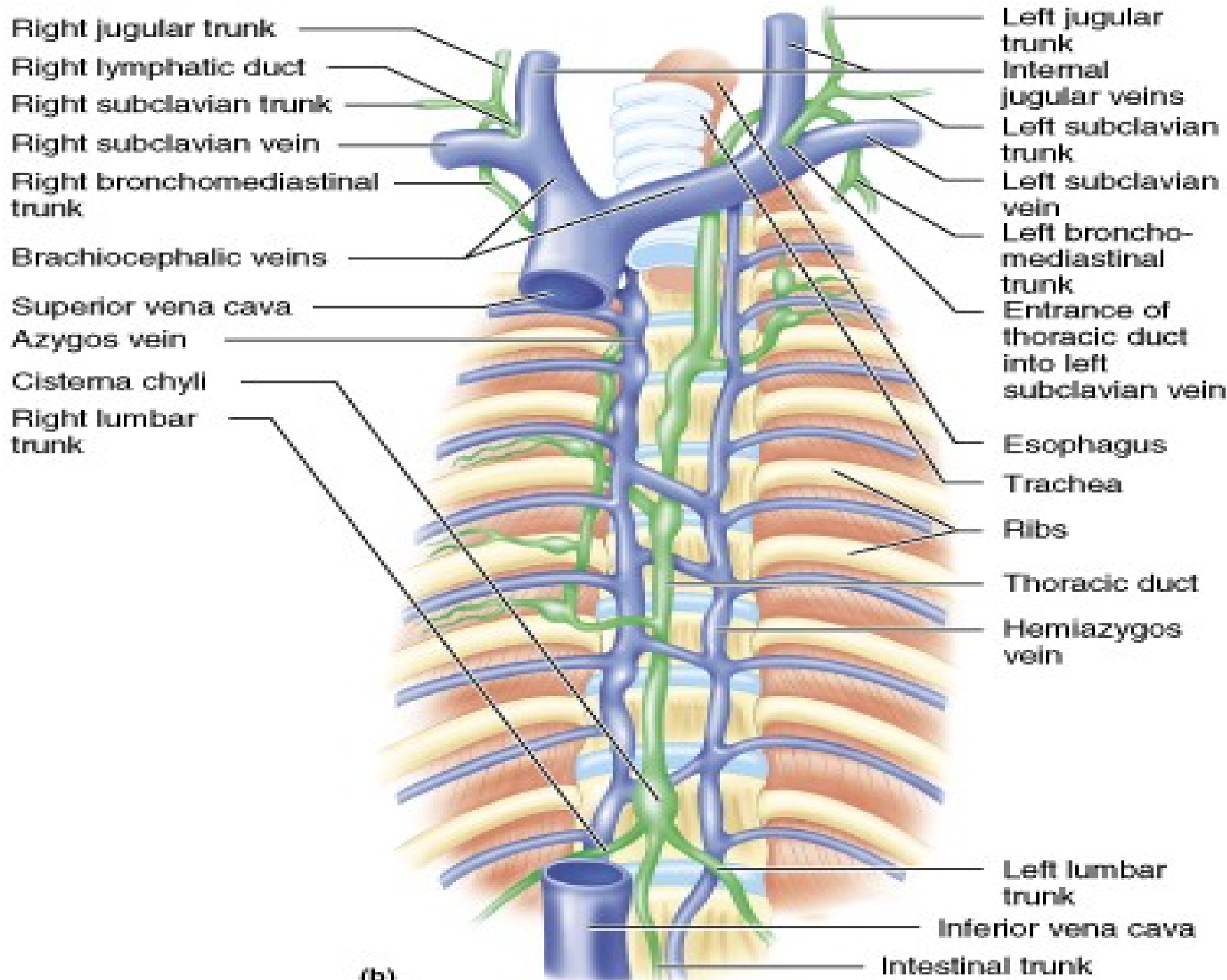
Thoracic duct

Aorta

Cisterna chyli

Lymphatic collecting vessels

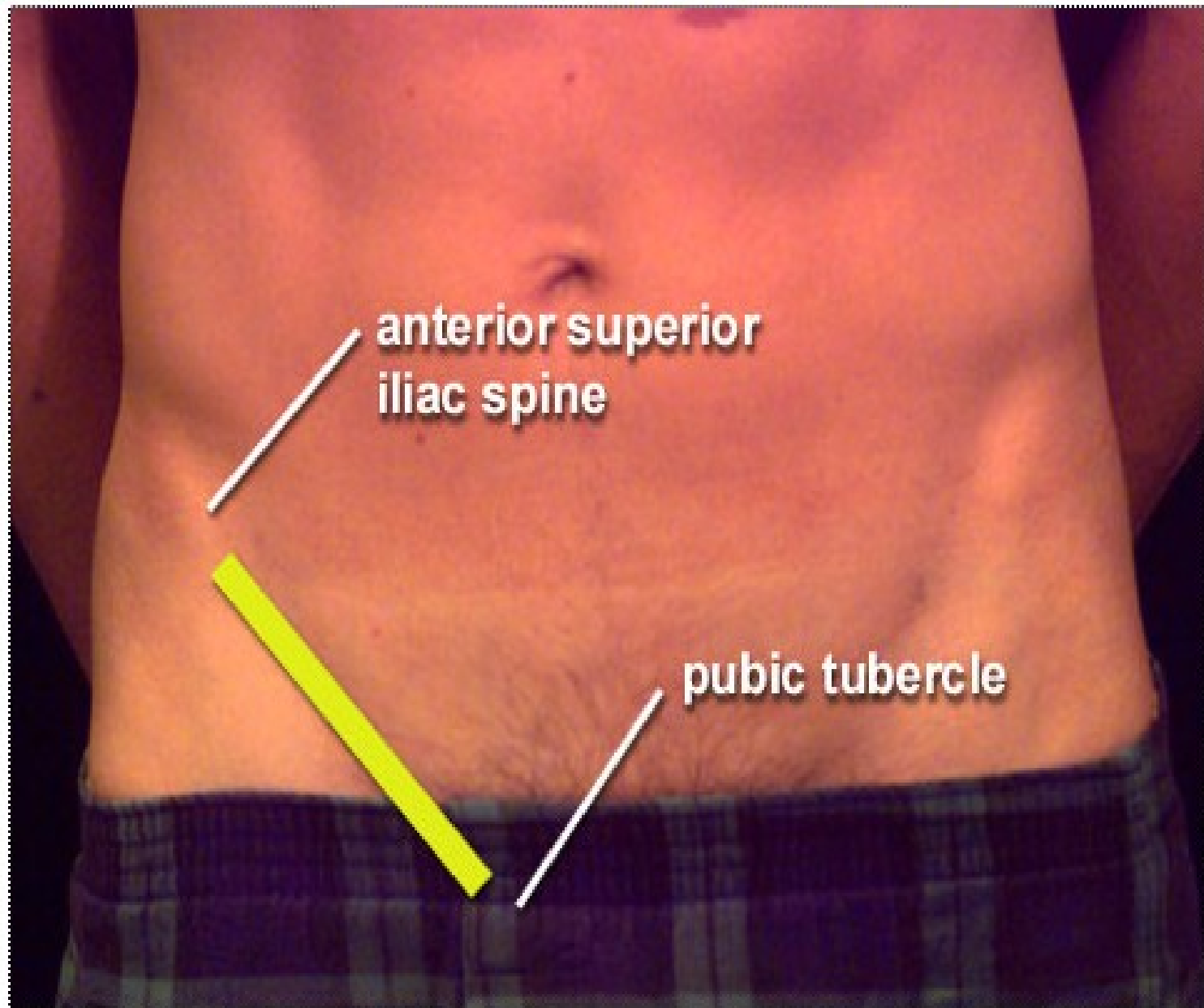




# INGUINAL REGION

- Important surgically because it is the site of *inguinal hernias* (“ruptures”), that is protrusion of a structures, viscus, or organ (Moore, p.147-9)
- An area of weakness in the anterior abdominal wall, especially in men due to the prenatal penetration of the wall by the testis & spermatic cord.

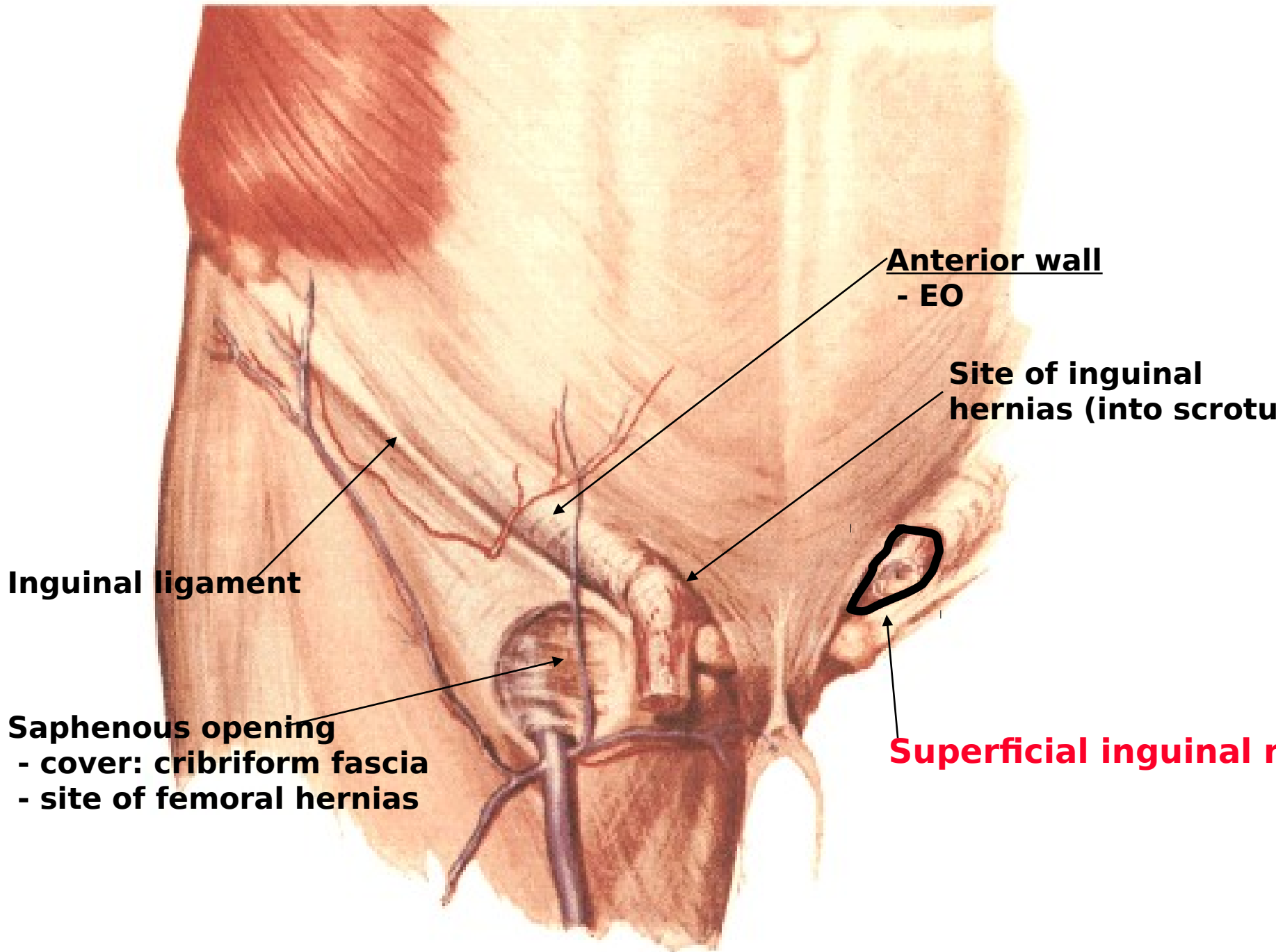
## Surface Anatomy: Inguinal Ligament





# INGUINAL CANAL

- Deep ring (slit)
- Superficial ring - a deficiency in the aponeurosis of EO
- Roof: IO, TA
- Anterior wall: EO
- Floor: Inguinal/lacunar ligaments
- Posterior wall: Transversalis fascia and conjoint tendon



**Anterior wall**  
**- EO**

**Site of inguinal  
hernias (into scrotum)**

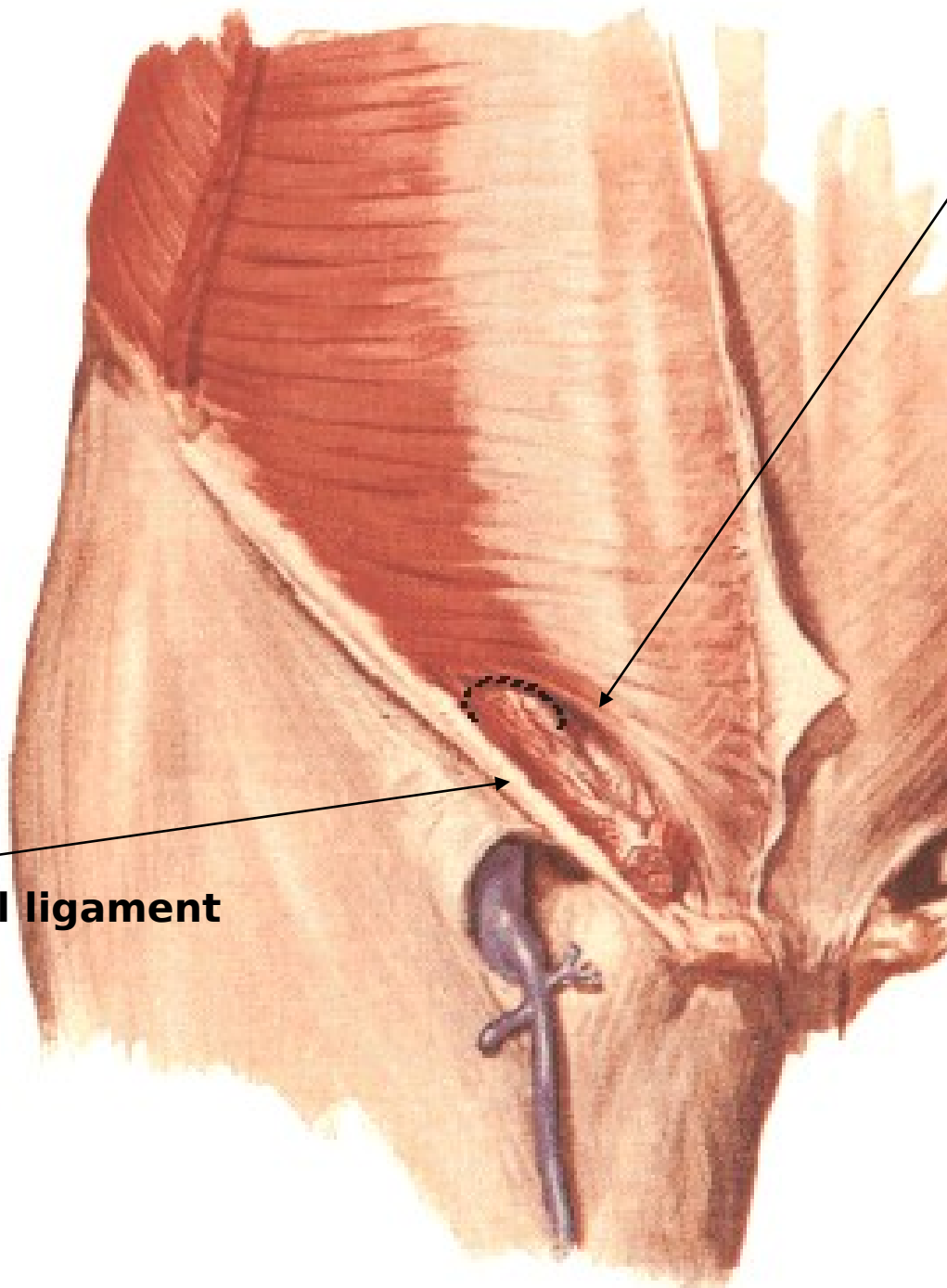
**Inguinal ligament**

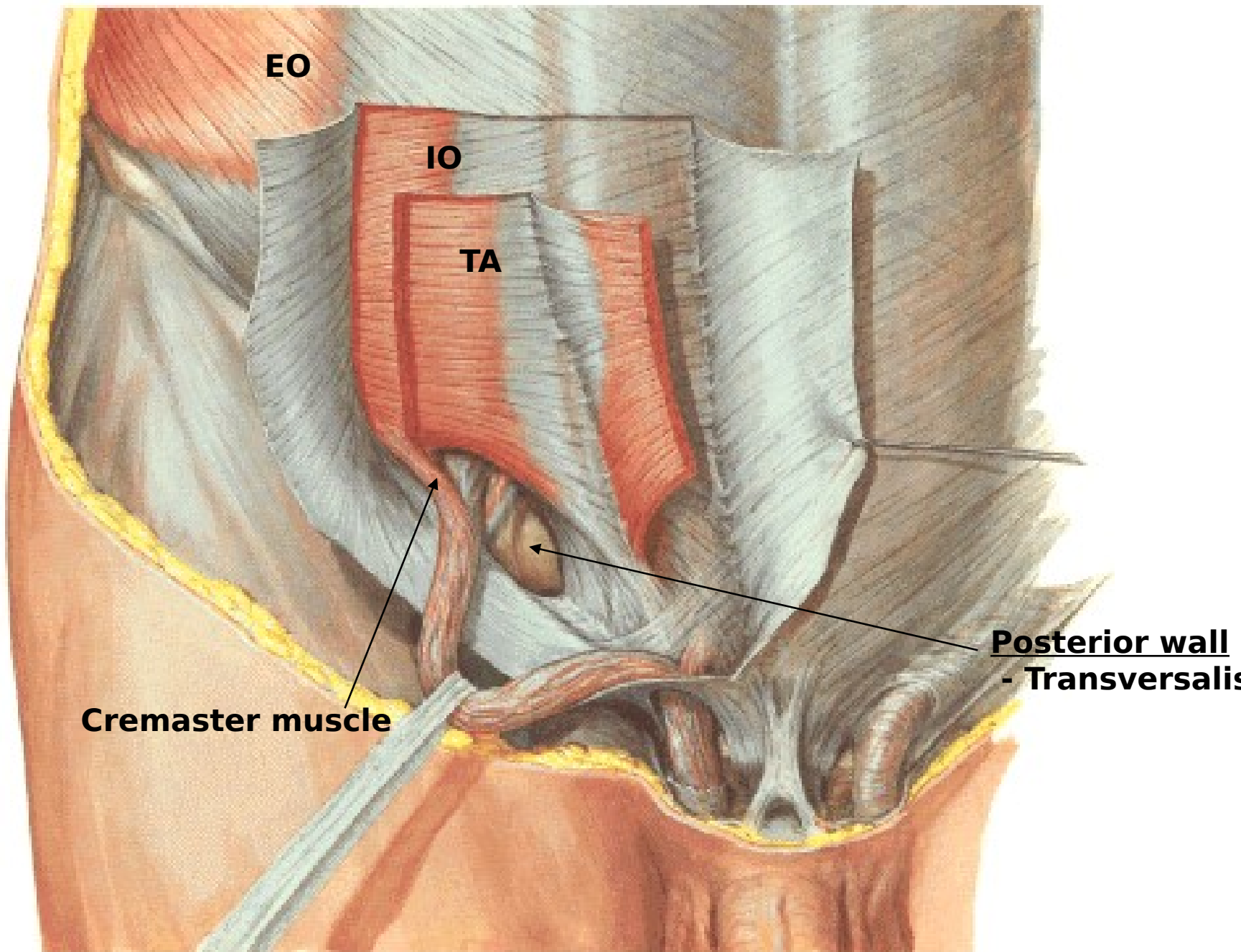
**Saphenous opening**  
**- cover: cribriform fascia**  
**- site of femoral hernias**

**Superficial inguinal ring**

**Floor**  
- Inguinal ligament

**Roof**  
- IO  
- TA

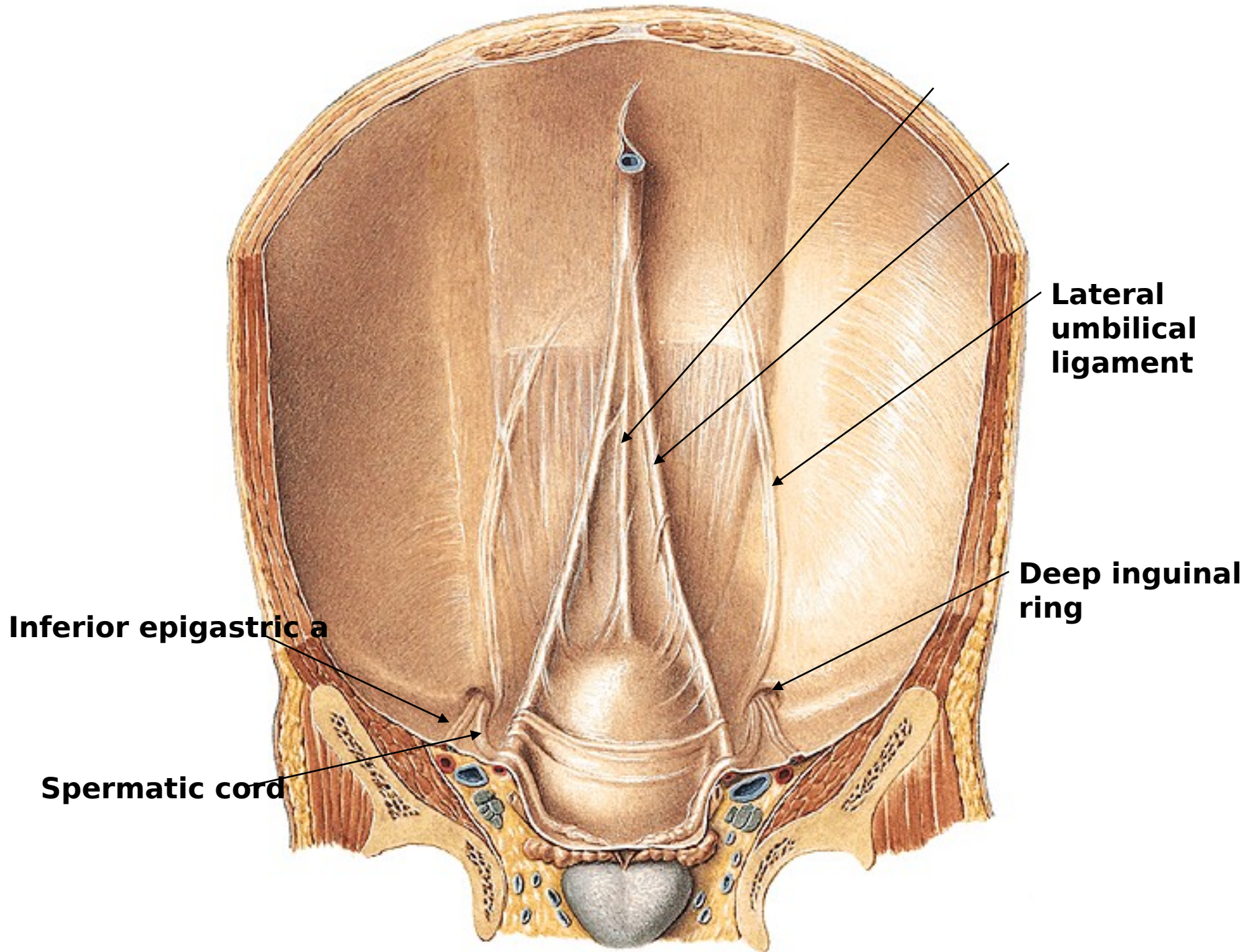


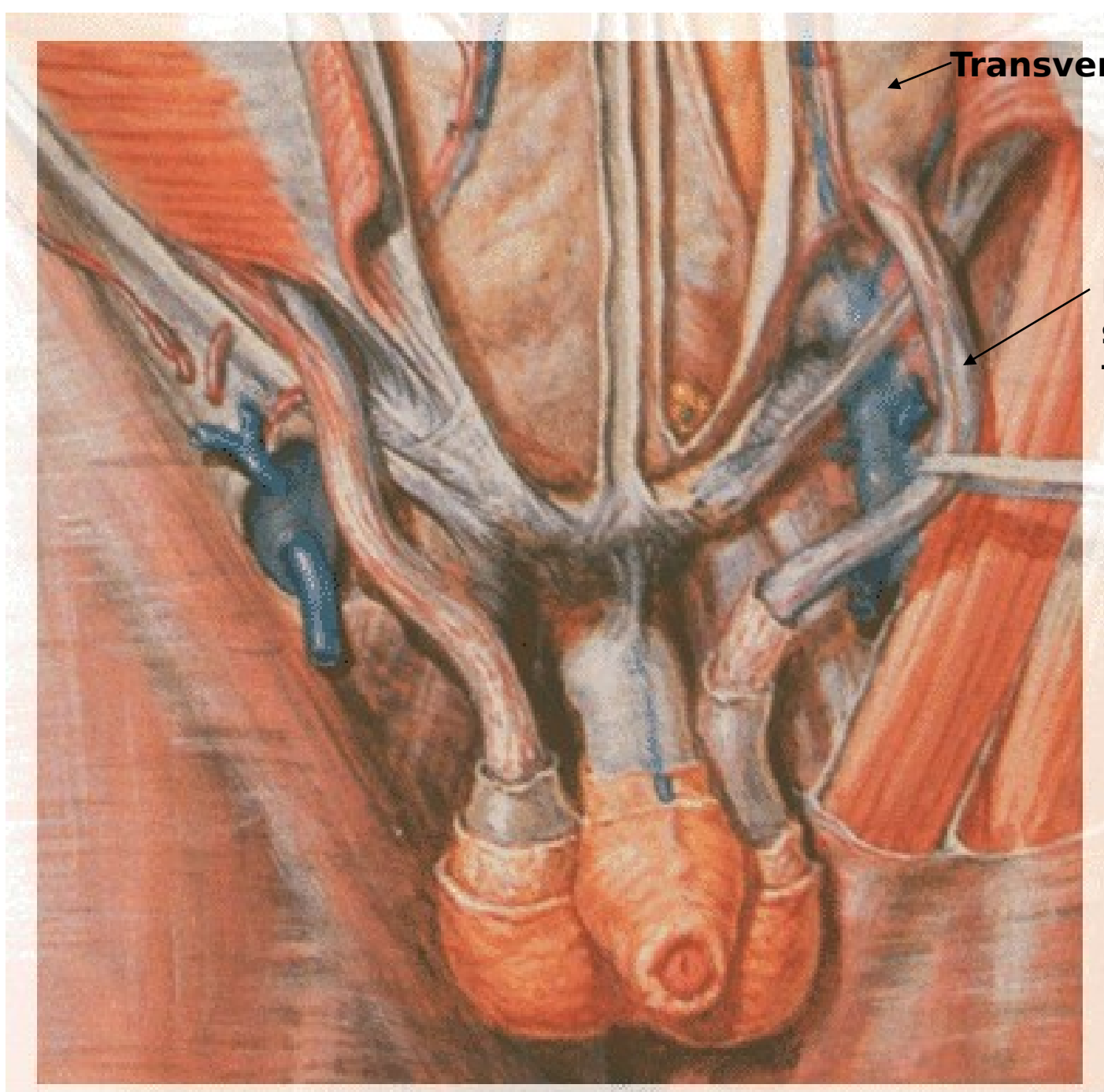


# INGUINAL HERNIAS

- Indirect inguinal hernias
  - Deep inguinal ring
  - Inguinal canal
  - Superficial inguinal ring
    - Into scrotum within Spermatic Cord
- Direct inguinal hernias
  - Posterior wall of inguinal canal
  - Superficial inguinal ring
    - Into scrotum outside Spermatic Cord







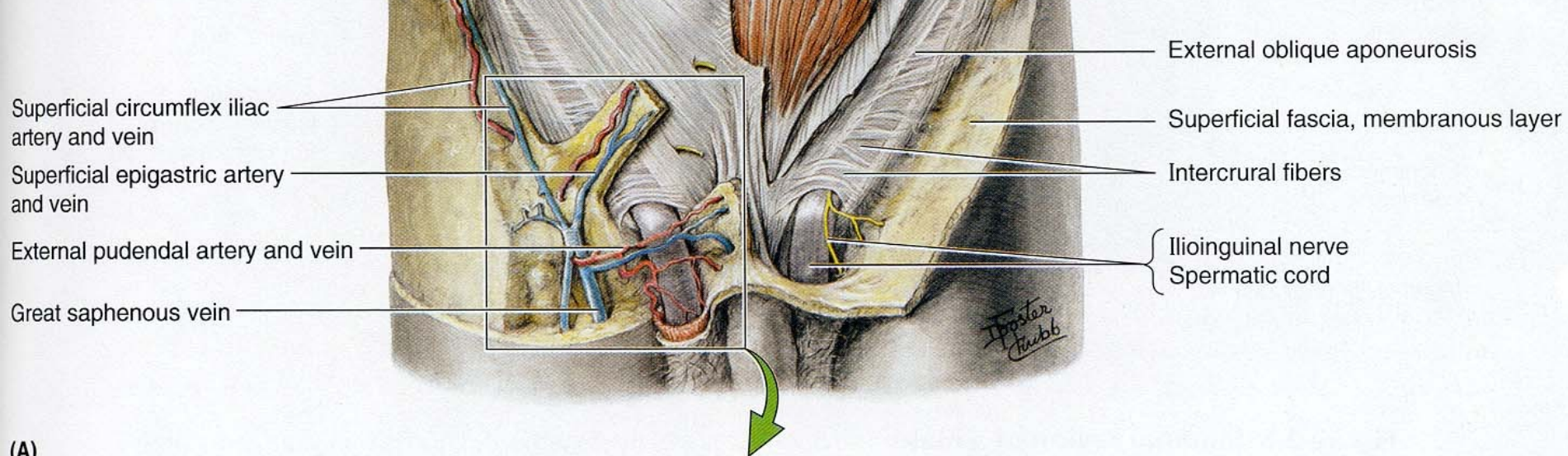
Transversalis fascia

Internal  
spermatic  
fascia

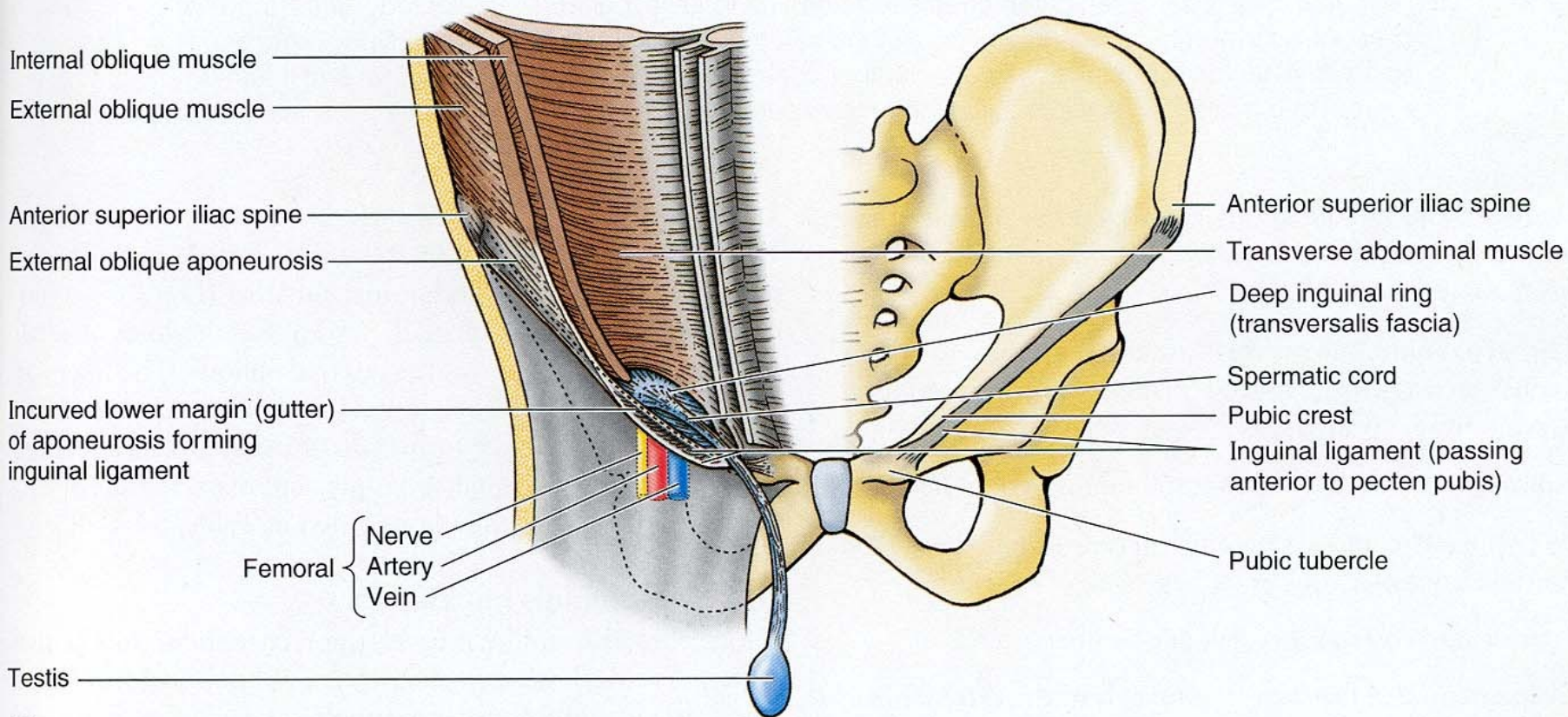
# INGUINAL HERNIAS

- Indirect inguinal hernia
  - Lateral to inferior epigastric a
- Direct inguinal hernia
  - Medial to inferior epigastric a

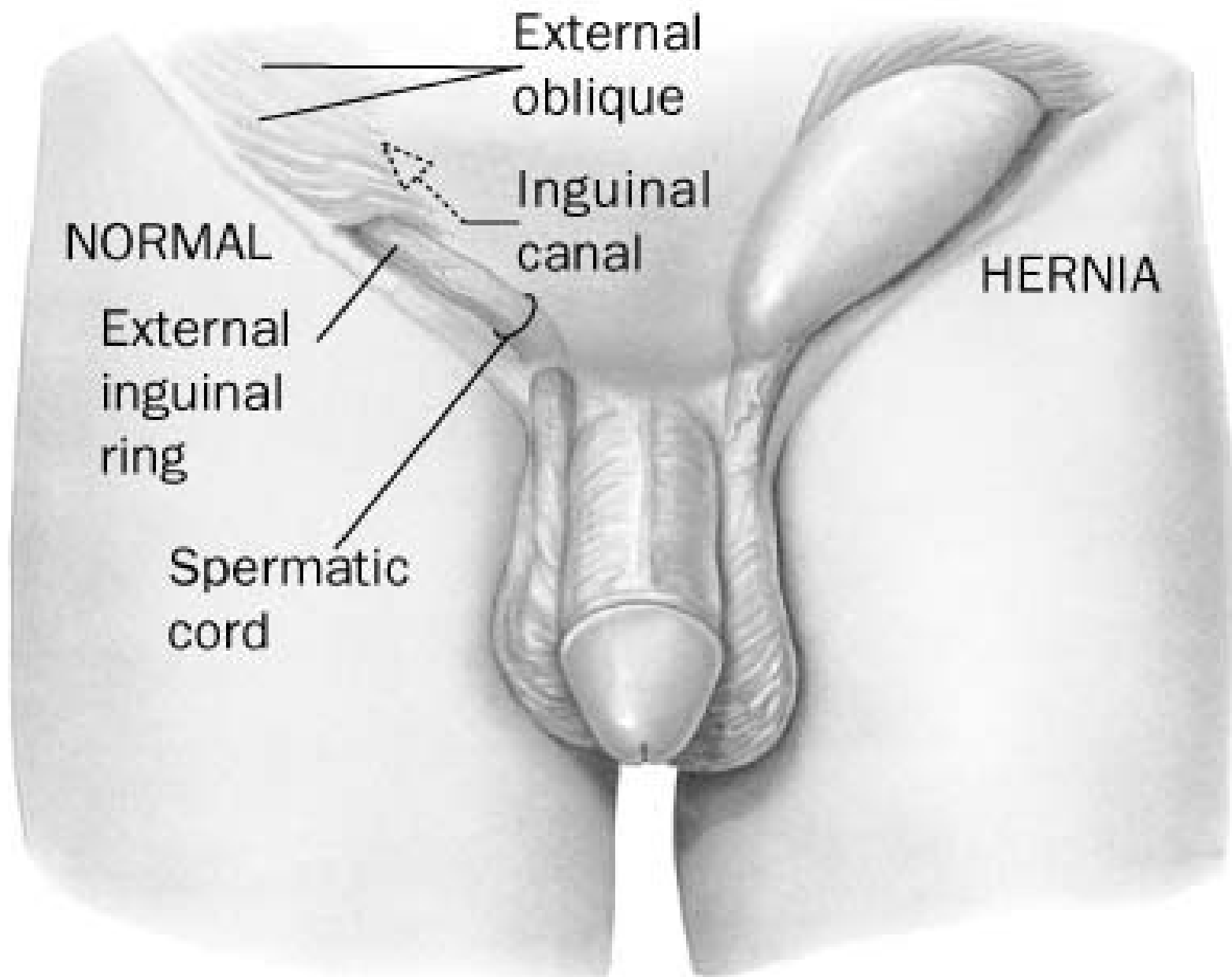




(A)



(B)

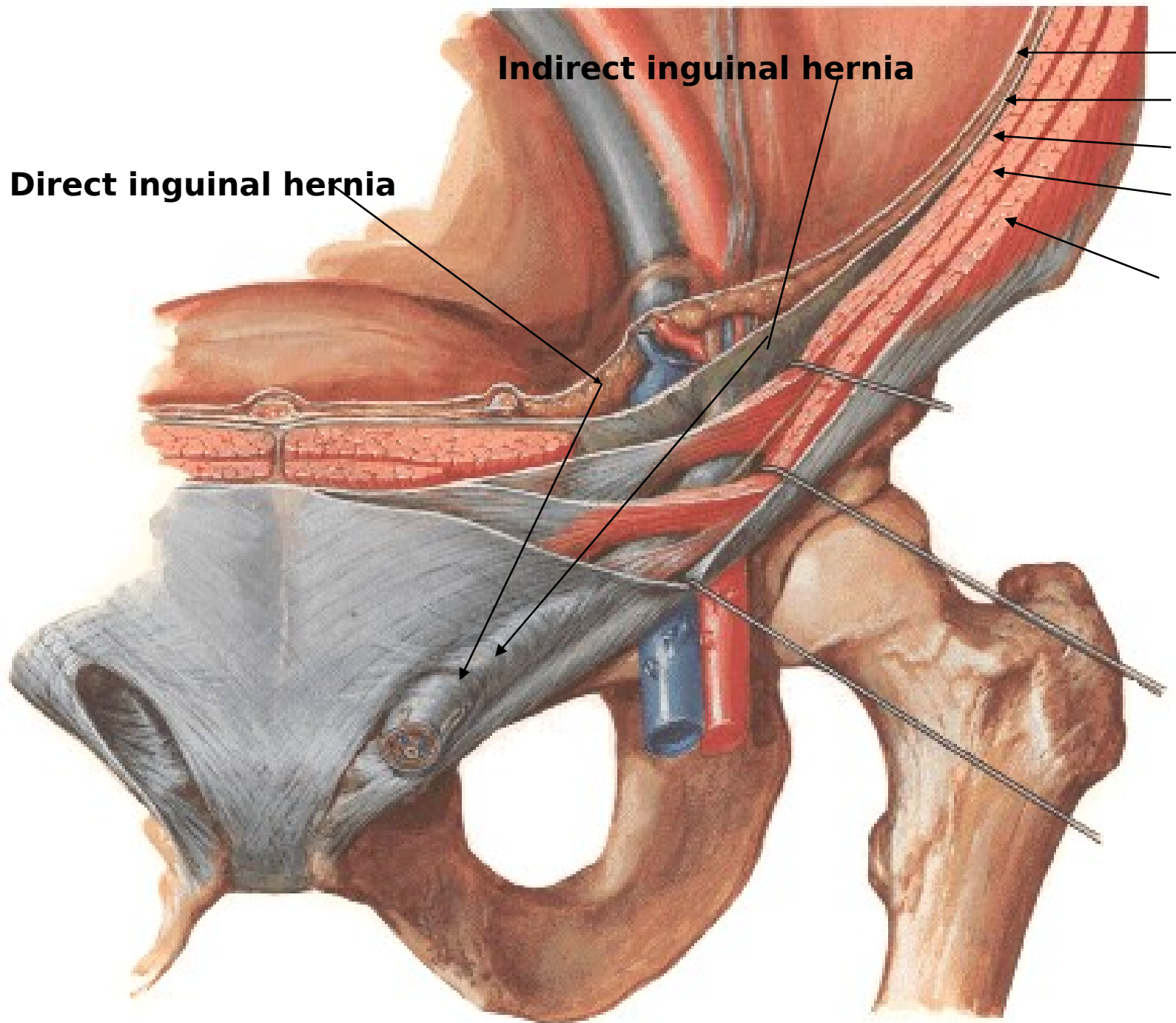


**Figure A-24 Inguinal Hernia**

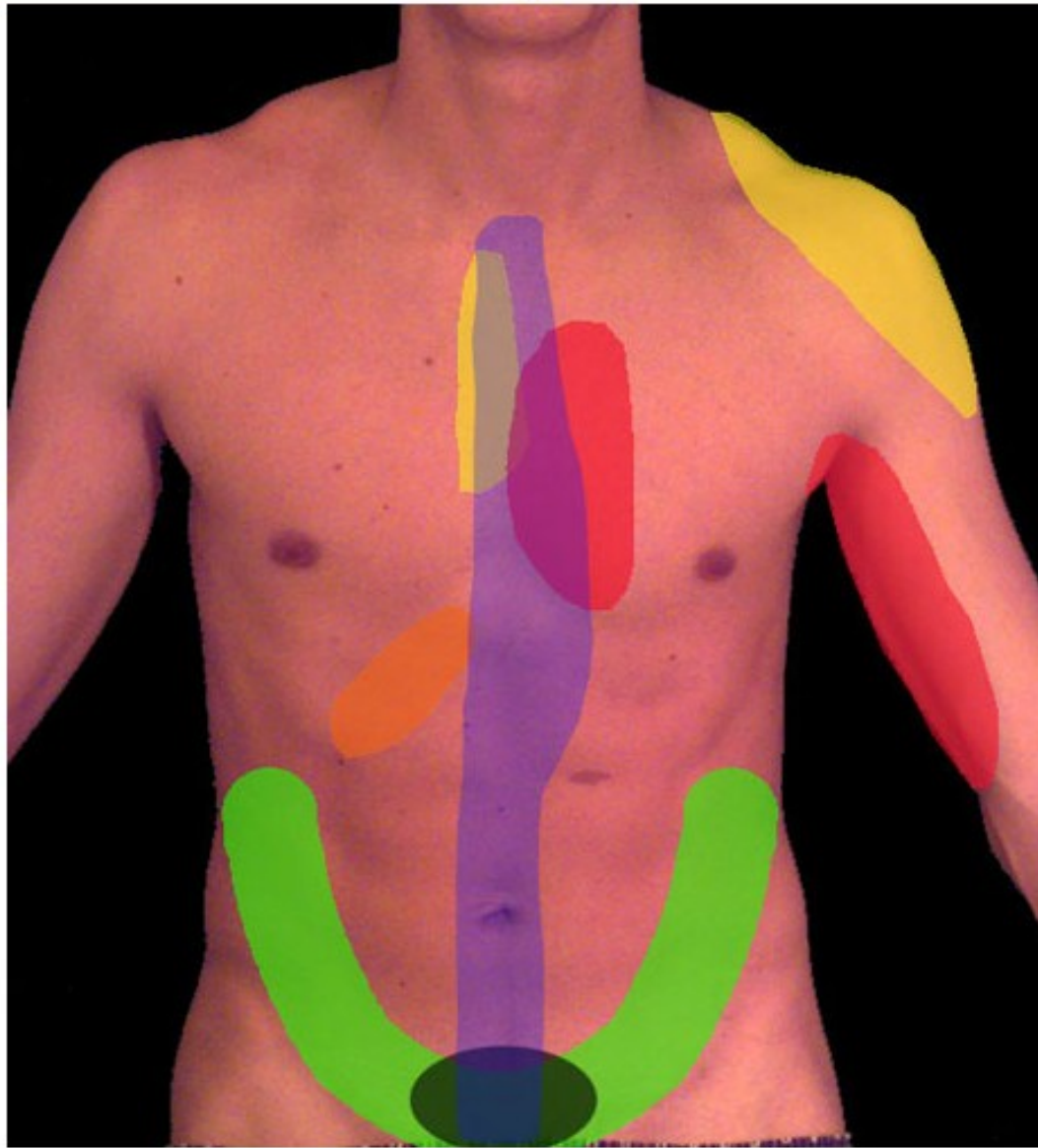


**Direct inguinal hernia**

**Indirect inguinal hernia**



## Surface Anatomy: Referred Pain



Diaphragm, Pericardium and Heart, Heart, Digestive tract, Liver and Gall  
Bladder, Kidney and Ureter, Pelvic Organs

**QUESTIONS?**

**Positional Behavior** - the entire repertoire of positions that an animal engages in, including movement or **locomotion**:

*E.g.:* leaping, quadrupedalism (arboreal and/or terrestrial), suspensory behavior (climbing, bridging, brachiation), bipedalism;

and positions at rest or **posture**:

*E.g.:* sitting, standing, hanging, feeding, sleeping, clinging.



Pelvis of  
Modern Human



Pelvis of  
Chimpanzee

(Superior  
Views)



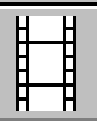
# Introduction

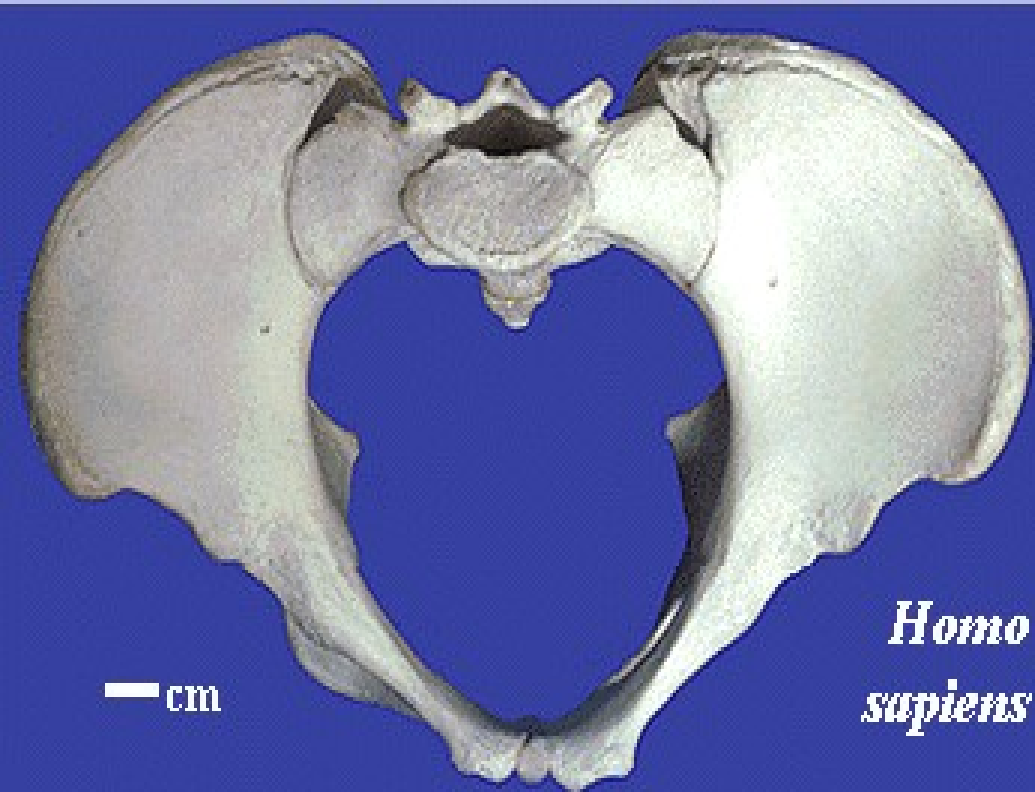
This lab focuses on the postcranial anatomy of the australopithecines and the anatomical adaptations that facilitate bipedal locomotion. Although many animals practice facultative bipedalism, habitual bipedalism is rare. The evolution of this locomotor behavior is one of the key characteristics that distinguishes hominids from the other primates. **Be sure to watch the movie.**

The lower back, pelvis, and lower extremities demonstrate the most obvious adaptations for bipedalism. This virtual laboratory investigates these aspects of the postcranial morphology of early hominids. Remember that these

anatomical adaptations have evolved over millions of years and that differences exist between earlier and later species.

The partial skeleton of Lucy, a 3.2 million year old specimen of *Australopithecus afarensis*





*Homo sapiens*

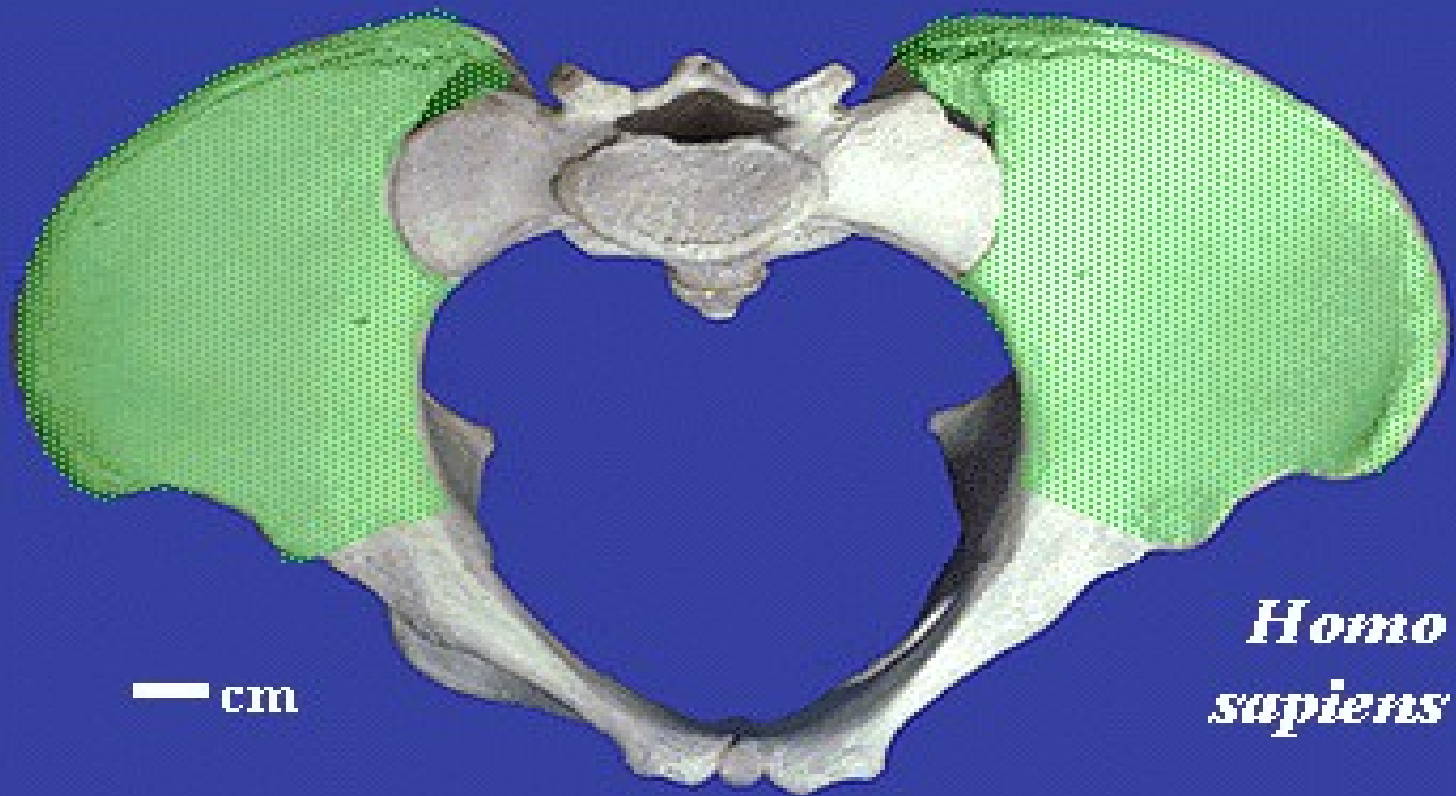


*Pan troglodytes*

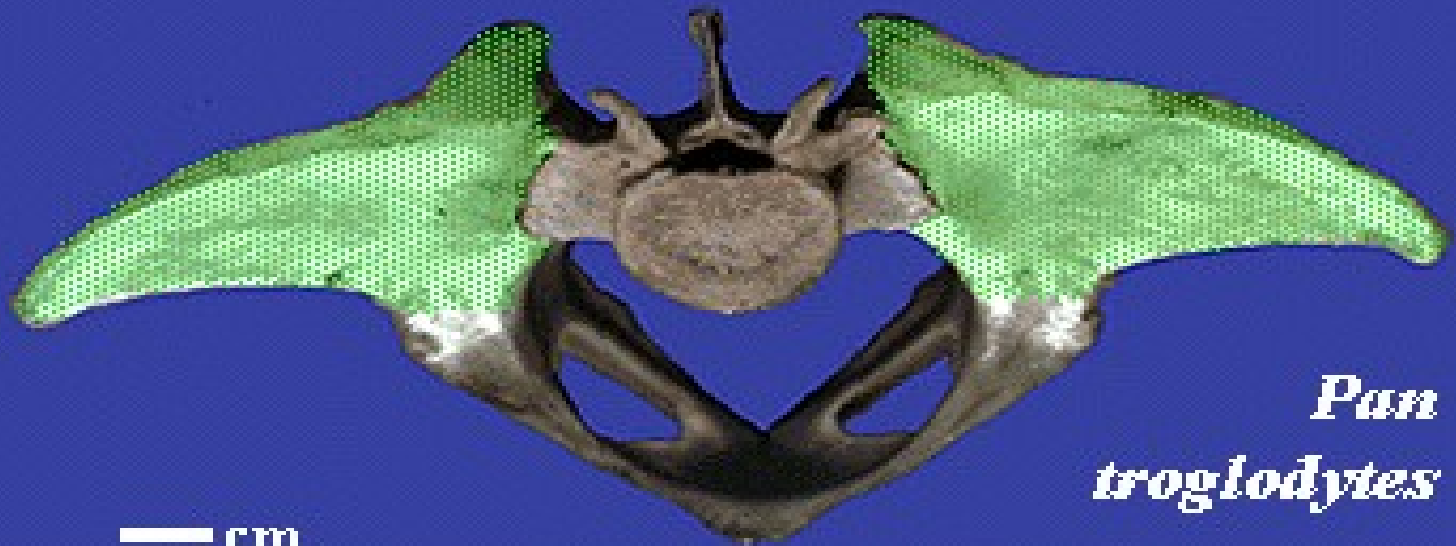
The orientation of the **iliac ala** differs in humans and in apes. (The anatomical term ala means "winglike structure.") In apes, the flat portion of the iliac ala is roughly **parallel** with the plane of the back, while in humans it is shifted **laterally** and positioned more to the side.

The orientation of the iliac blade affects the action of lesser gluteal muscles. In humans these are **abductors** of the hip and they prevent the hip on the supported side from collapsing toward the unsupported side, thus increasing stability during bipedal locomotion. In the apes, these muscles act as hip **extensors** and move the leg backward when a primate pushes forward to take a step and thus aid in propulsion.





*Homo  
sapiens*



*Pan  
troglodytes*

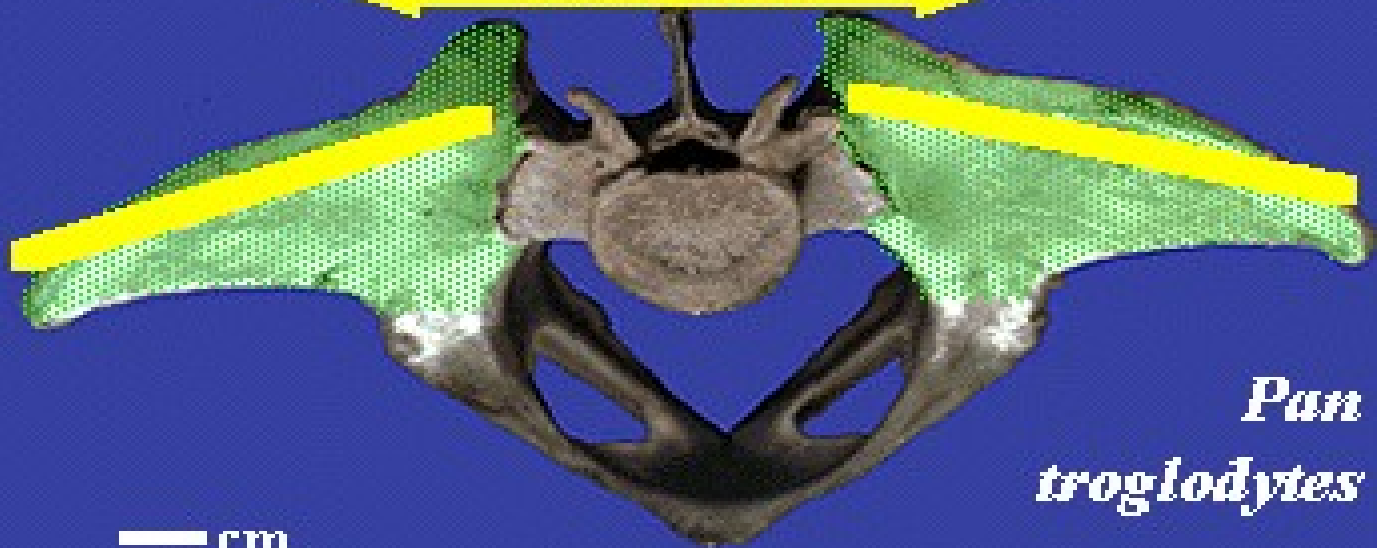


*Homo sapiens*

1 cm



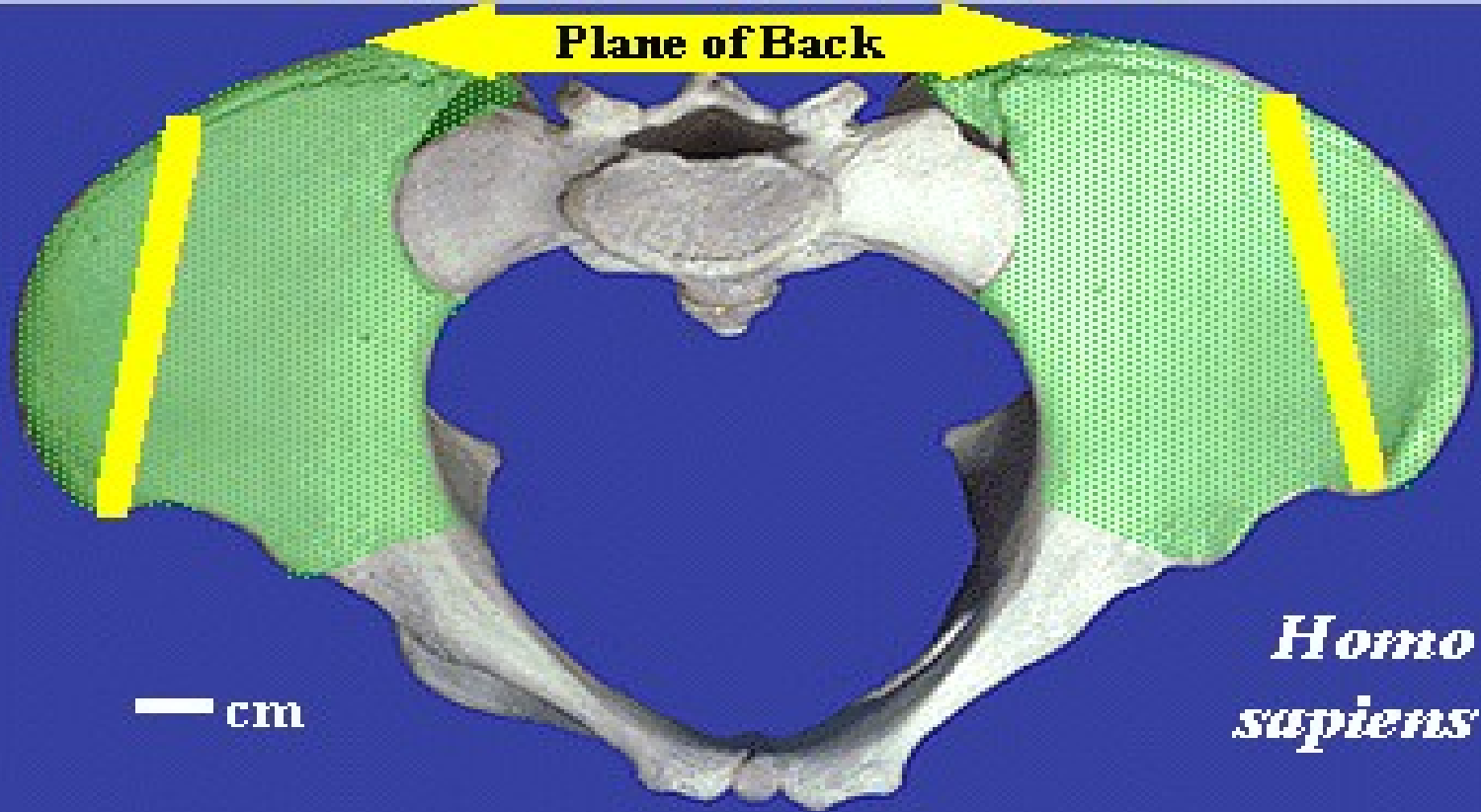
Plane of Back



*Pan troglodytes*

1 cm

Plane of Back

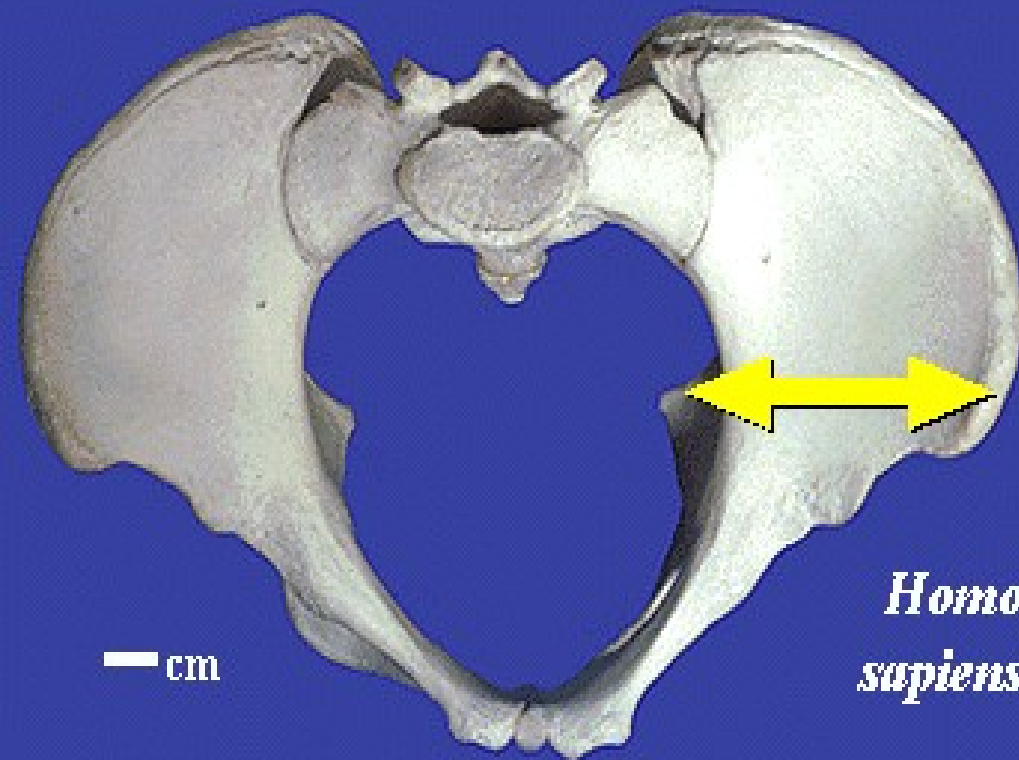


*Homo sapiens*



*Pan troglodytes*





*Homo sapiens*

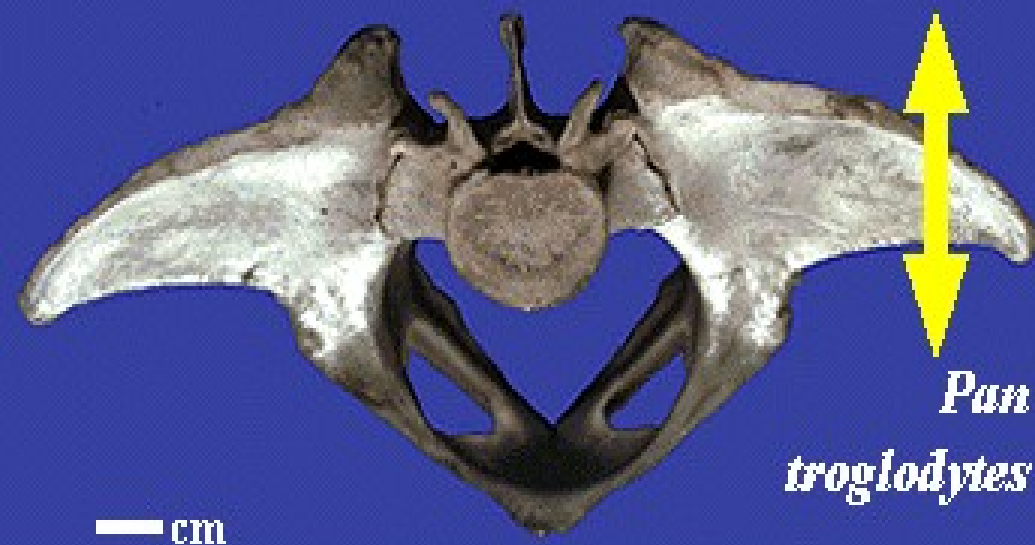
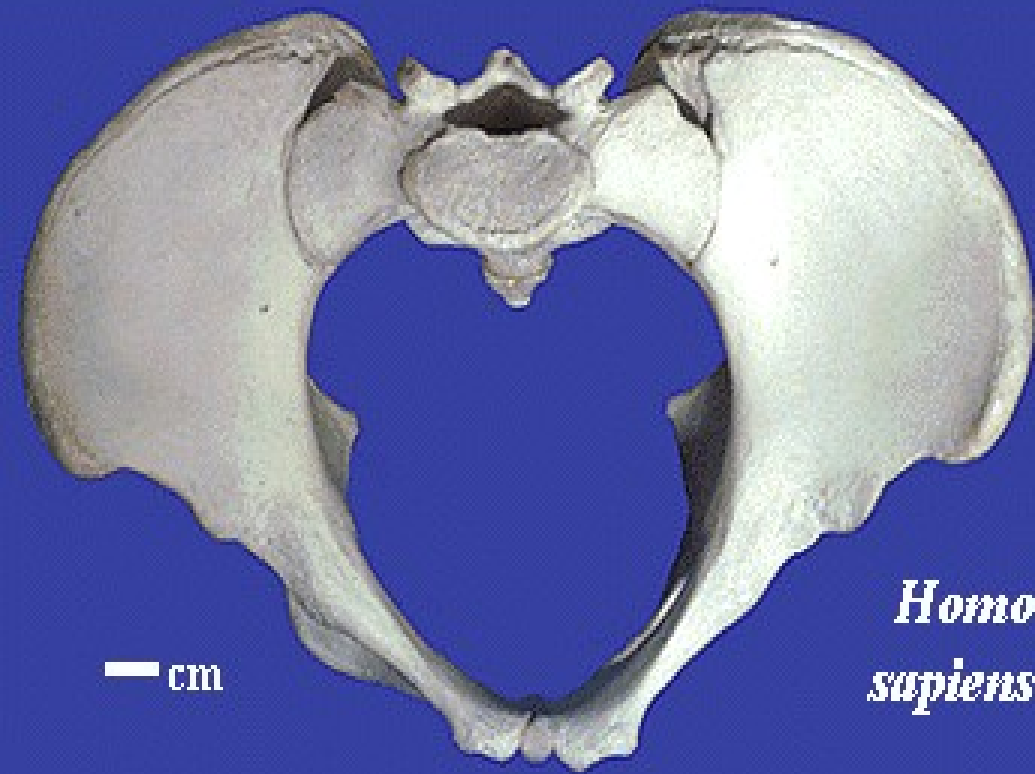


*Pan troglodytes*

The arrow shows the approximate line of action of the small gluteal muscles (gluteus minimus and medius) when they contract and abduct the thigh. The gluteus medius is also a rotator of the thigh.

The orientation of the iliac blade affects the action of lesser gluteal muscles. In humans these are **abductors** of the hip and they prevent the hip on the supported side from collapsing toward the unsupported side, thus increasing stability during bipedal locomotion. In the apes, these muscles act as hip **extensors** and move the leg backward when a primate pushes forward to take a step and thus aid in propulsion.



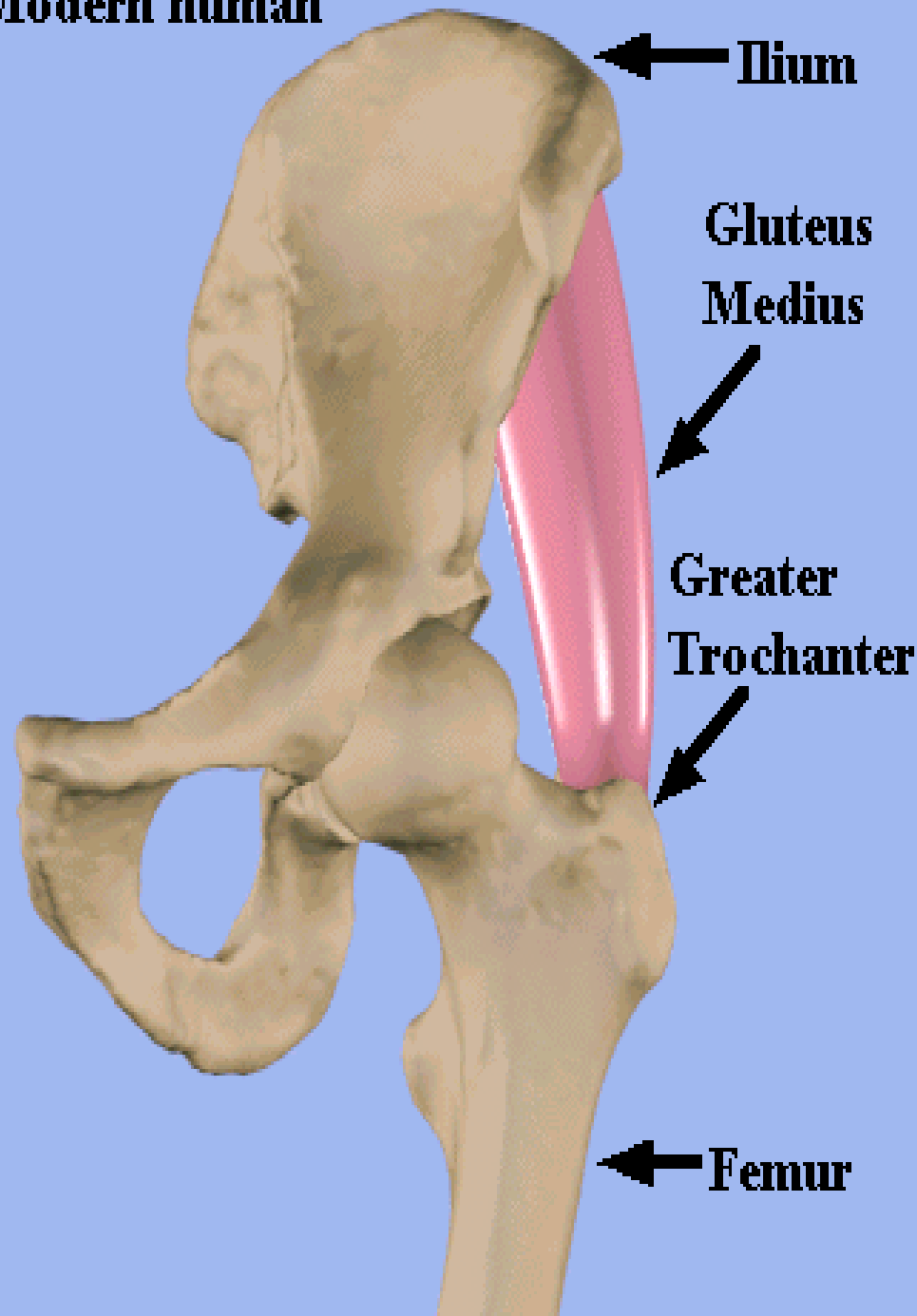


The arrow shows the approximate line of action of the smaller gluteal muscles (gluteus minimus and medius) when they contract and extend the thigh in apes. Note again how the orientation of the iliac ala controls the action of these muscles.

The orientation of the iliac blade affects the action of lesser gluteal muscles. In humans these are **abductors** of the hip and they prevent the hip on the supported side from collapsing toward the unsupported side, thus increasing stability during bipedal locomotion. In the apes, these muscles act as hip **extensors** and move the leg backward when a primate pushes forward to take a step and thus aid in propulsion.



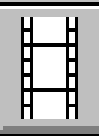
## Modern human

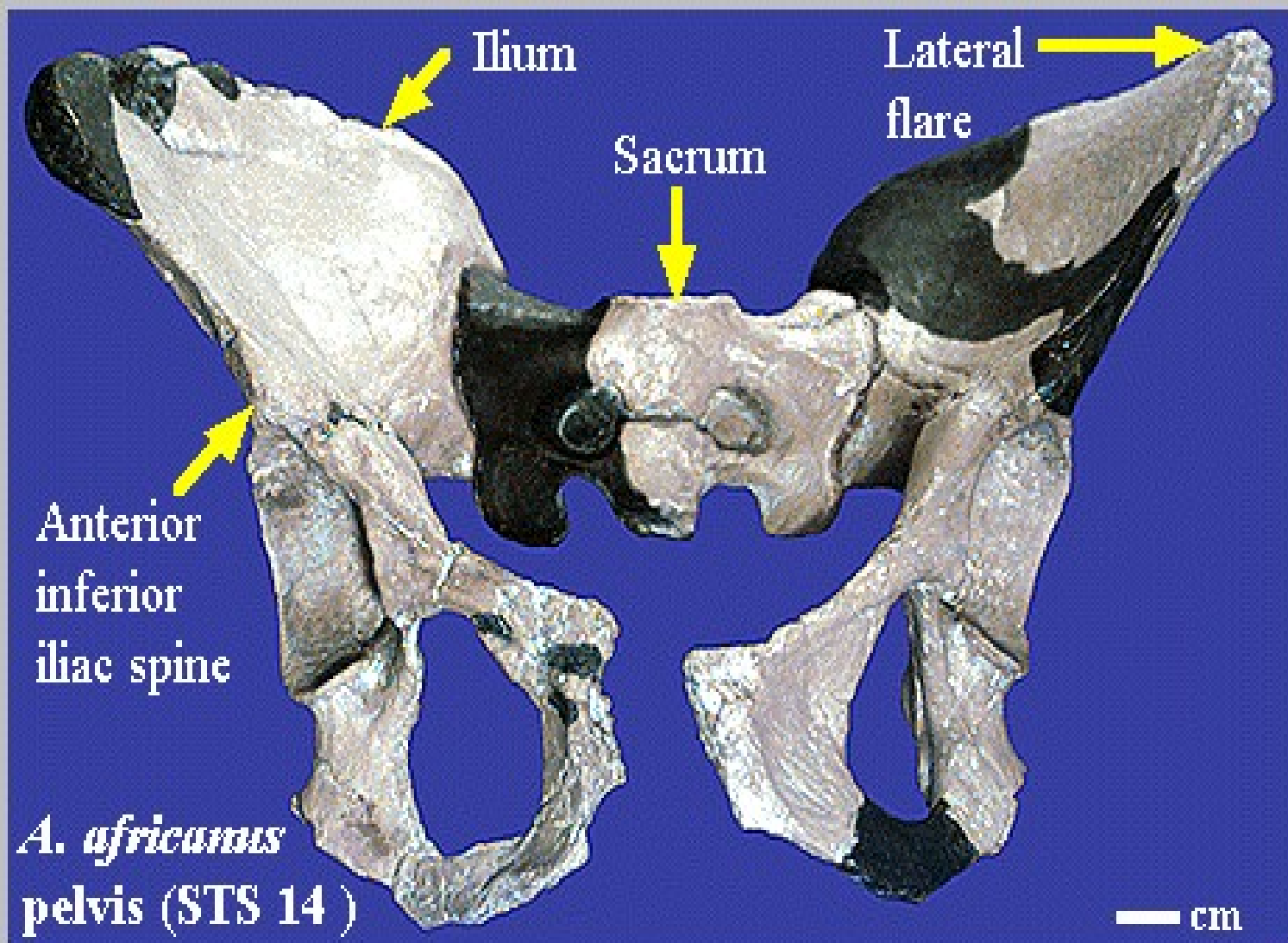


## Abduction

Here is a 3-D reconstruction showing the attachment of the gluteus medius muscle that you just studied on the previous screen. It originates on the dorsal (back) side of the ilium and inserts on the greater trochanter of the femur, as does the gluteus minimus (not shown).

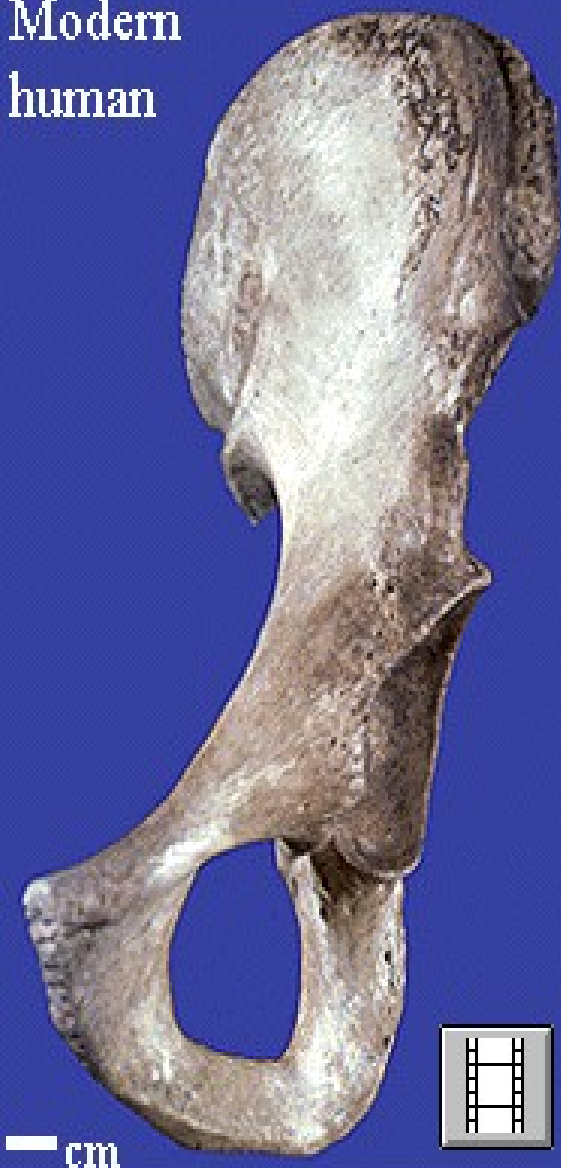
Remember that the iliac ala has more of a lateral orientation in humans as compared to a more posterior orientation in the apes. As a consequence, in humans these muscles abduct the femur at the hip joint.





Here is an australopithecine pelvis. (Areas shown in black are reconstructed.) Note the short, well-developed anterior inferior iliac spine, widely flaring iliac ala, and the wide sacrum, all hallmarks of bipedal locomotion. There is a more pronounced lateral flare in the ilia than is present in modern humans.

Modern  
human



*A. afarensis*



Although the exact function of its smaller gluteals is unknown, it is clearly the case that *Australopithecus* has an ala of the ilium that flares more **laterally** (to the side) than in *Homo*. This flare is a critical component of the lever system of the hip and acts to increase the mechanical advantage of the lesser gluteals by increasing their lever arm.

Be sure to view the animations to clearly see this difference.



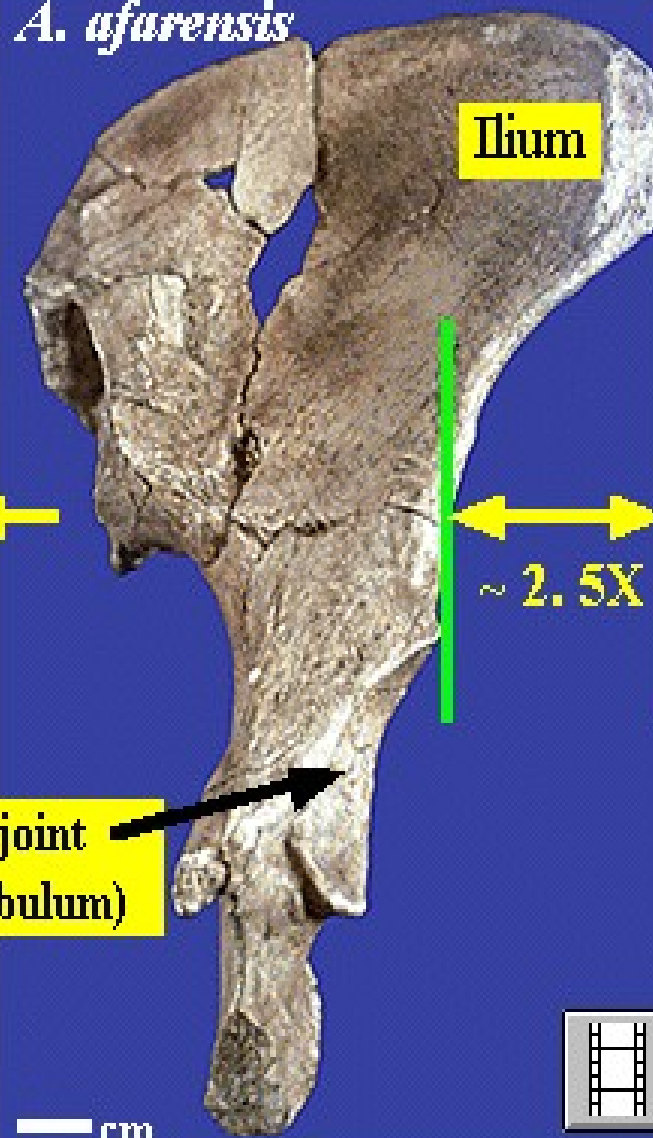
Anterior views of modern human (left) and australopithecine, *A. afarensis* (right: AL 288-1ao) os coxae or left pelvic bone.



Modern  
human



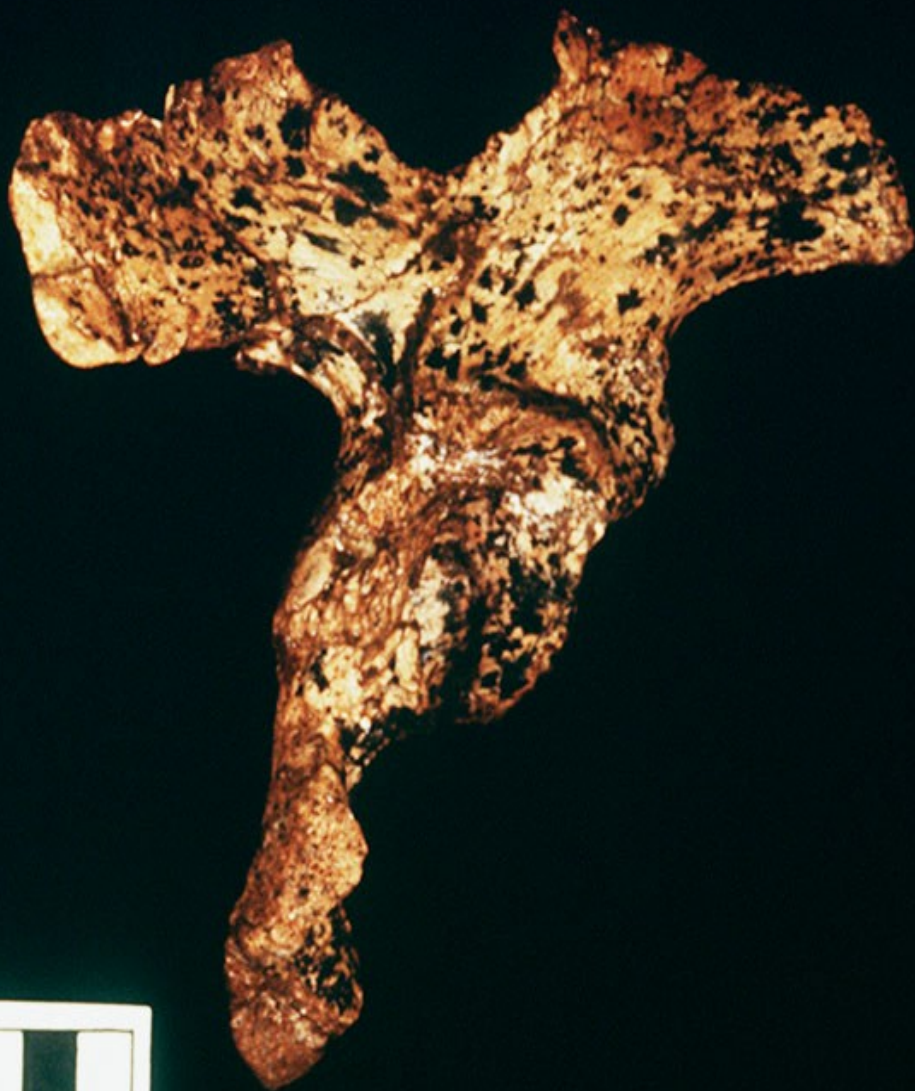
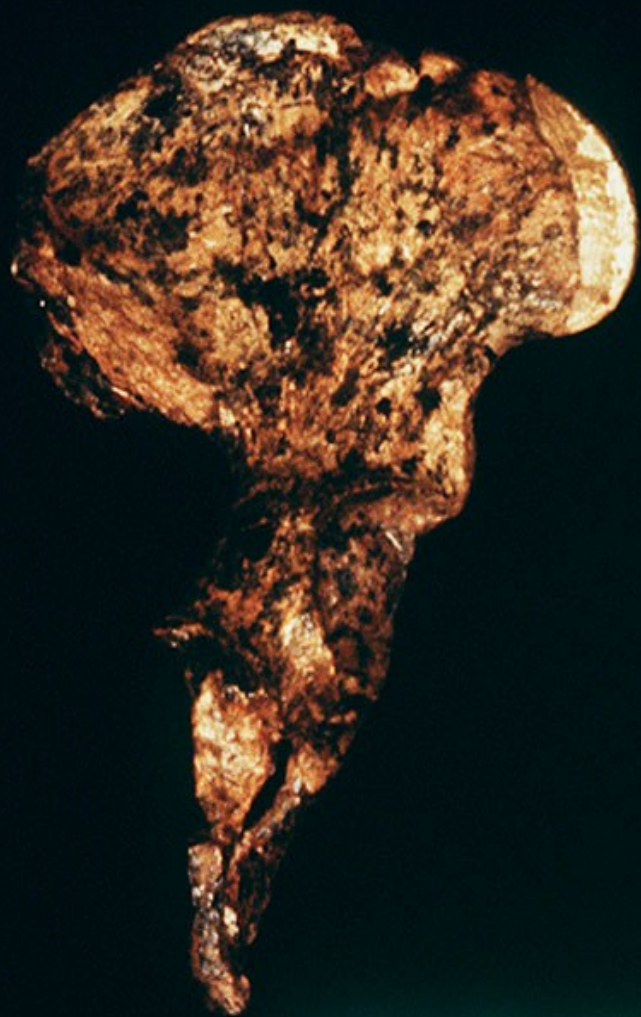
*A. afarensis*



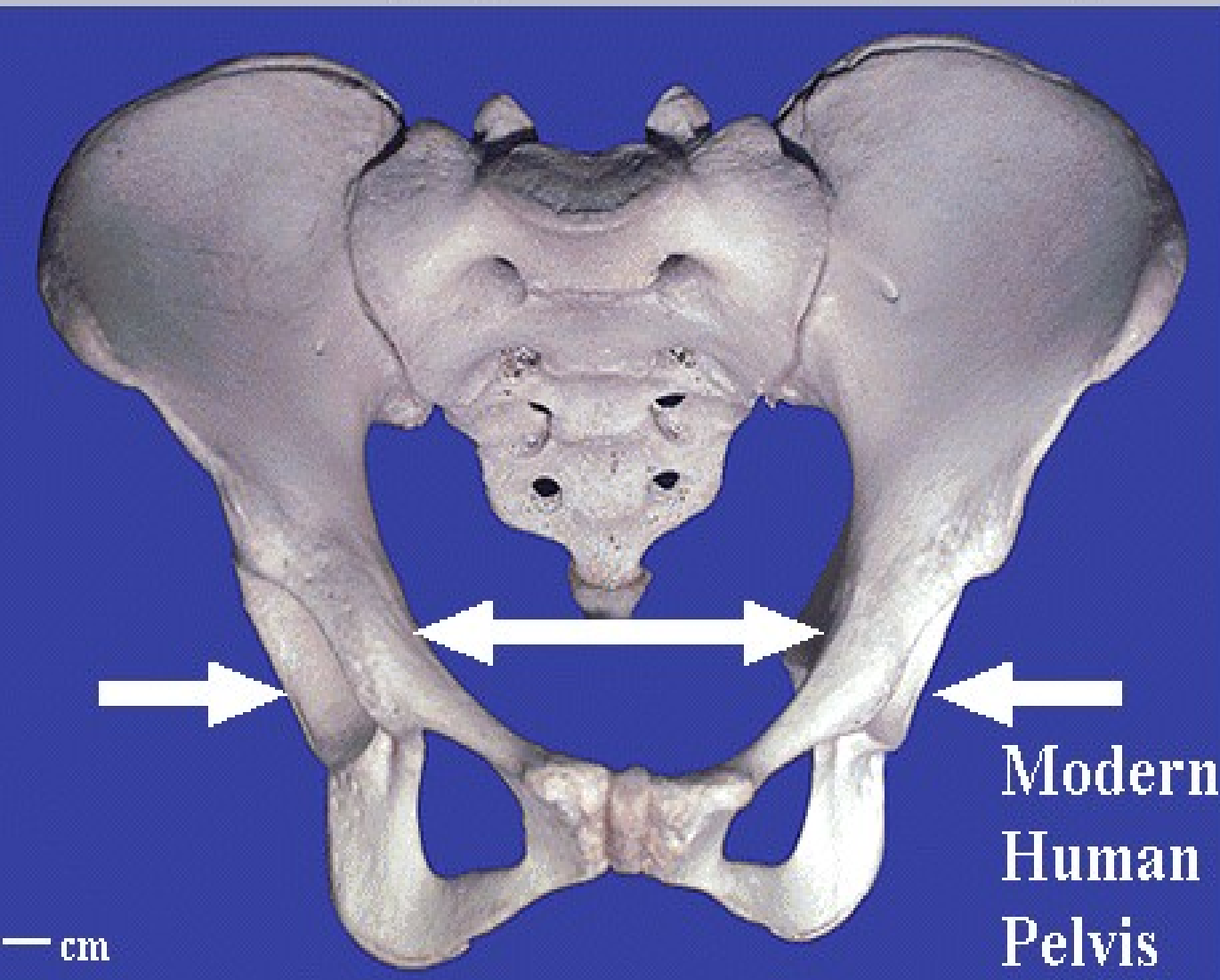
Although the exact function of its smaller gluteals is unknown, it is clearly the case that *Australopithecus* has an ala of the ilium that flares more **laterally** (to the side) than in *Homo*. This flare is a critical component of the lever system of the hip and acts to increase the mechanical advantage of the lesser gluteals by increasing their lever arm.



The green vertical lines mark the position of the hip joint and anterior point of the iliac ala, while the yellow arrows show how far the iliac ala flares past the hip joint. The australopithecine has about 2.5 times greater lateral flare than a modern human.



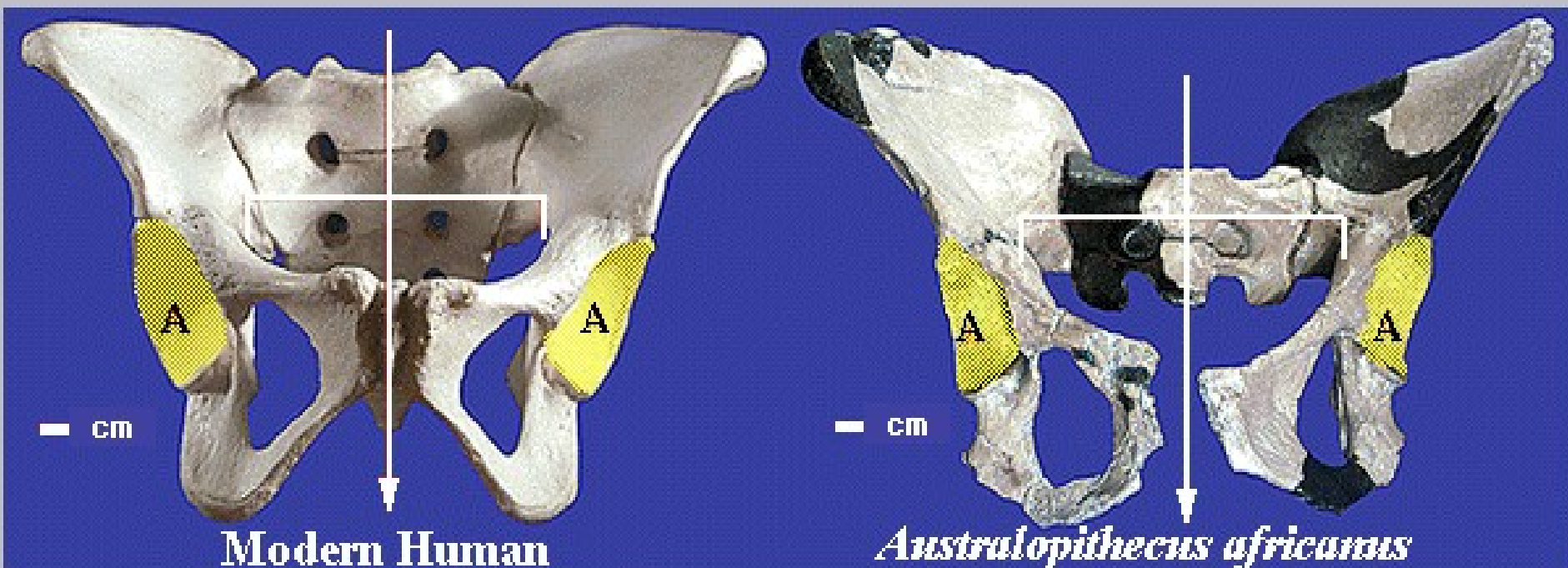
The modern human pelvis has even more widely spaced hip joints and a larger pelvic outlet relative to australopithecines. These differences appear to be a compromise between two functional needs: 1) efficient bipedality; and 2) allowing enough space for wide shouldered, large brained infants to pass through the birth canal.



What predictions can you make about the biomechanics of the pelvis, including the variables discussed on the previous page?

Press "Go to Next Page" to test your ideas.





**Modern Human**

***Australopithecus africanus***

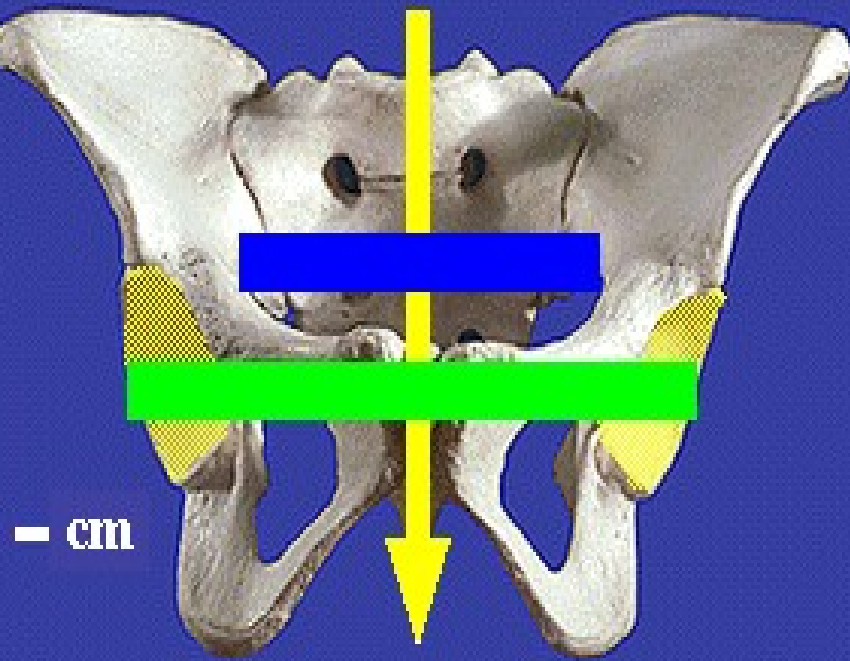
One consequence of the broader pelvic outlet in modern humans is the repositioning of the hip joint relatively further from the center line of the body than is seen in australopithecines. This is a critical adaptation because modern human babies are born with absolutely (and relatively) large brains; the big head must pass through the birth canal. Also note the larger size of the hip joint in humans. If the acetabulum ("A" above) is moved further away from the body's center of gravity, more force acts on the femoral head, and a head with a larger diameter helps to counteract these forces. (Also see the section in this lab on the femur.)

Click [HERE](#) for an explanatory page.



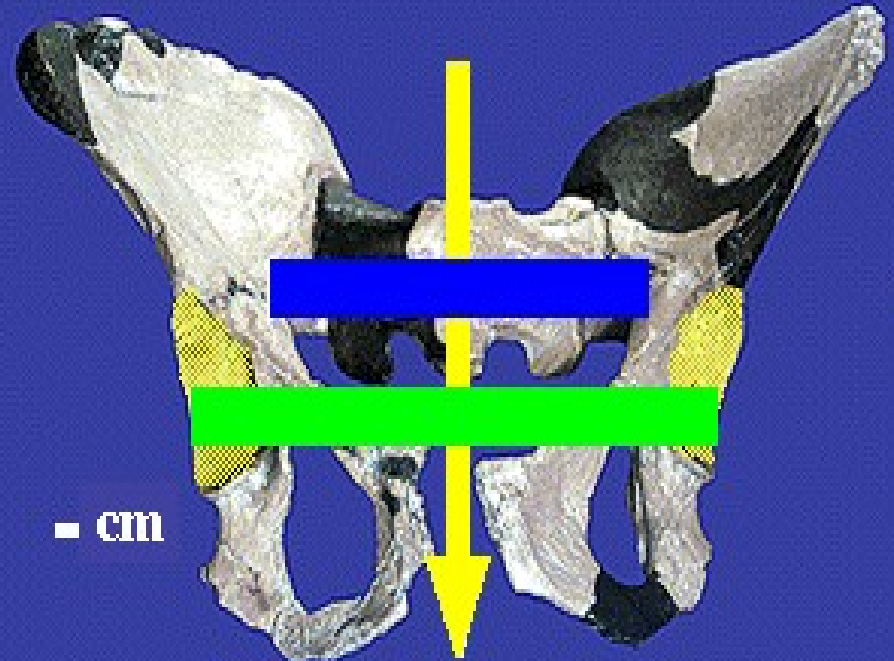
Centers of gravity are represented by vertical yellow arrows. Maximum width of the pelvic outlet is shown by a blue line. The green line is the maximum acetabular (hip joint) width. A comparison of the width ratio of pelvic outlet breadth to acetabular width illustrated at the bottom of the page shows that modern humans have relatively more widely spaced hip joints (smaller ratio) than australopithecines.

Modern human

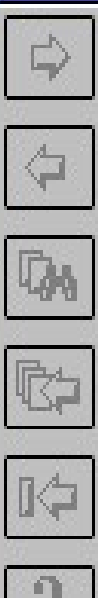


*Width ratio: 0.625*

Australopithecine



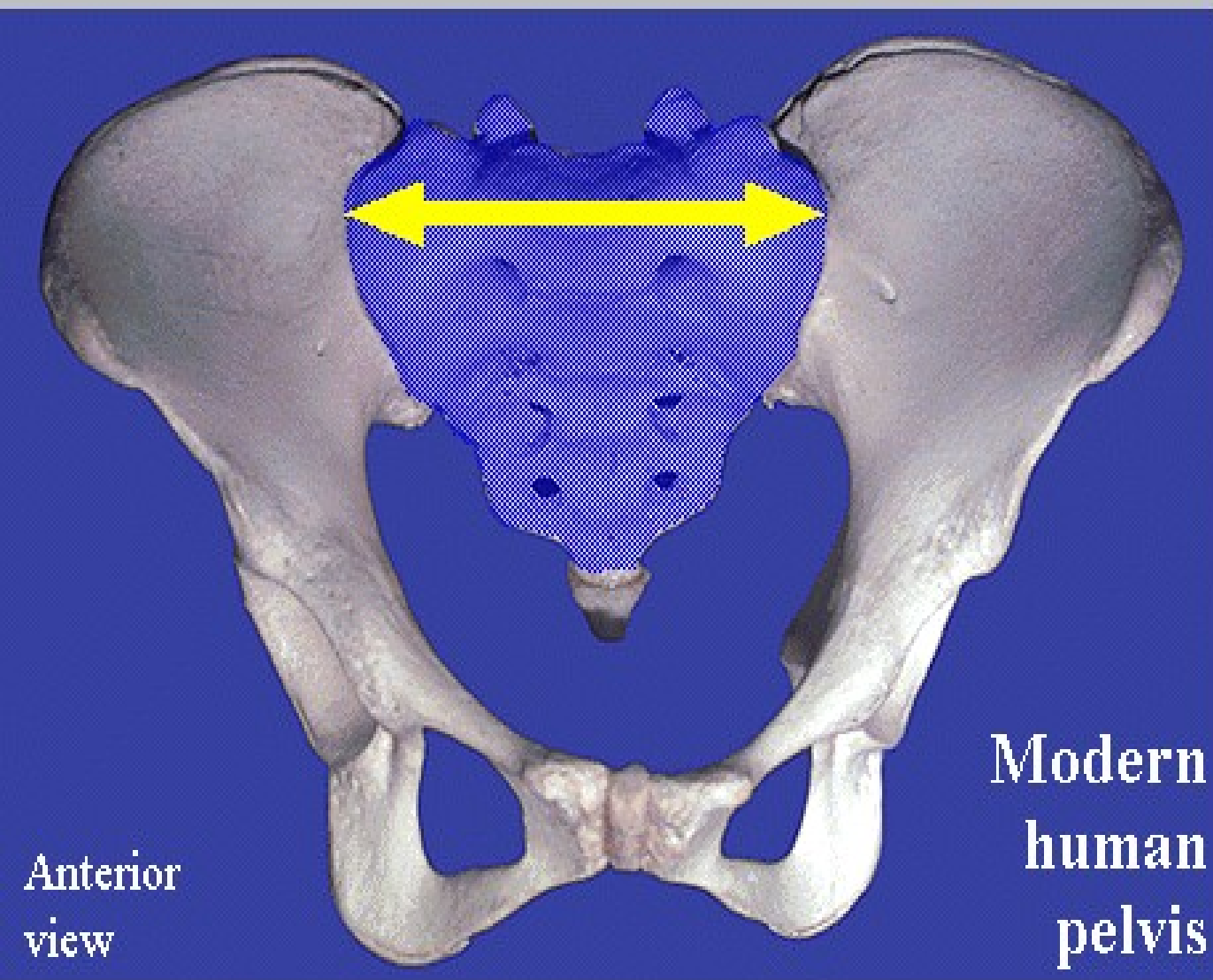
*Width ratio: 0.71*



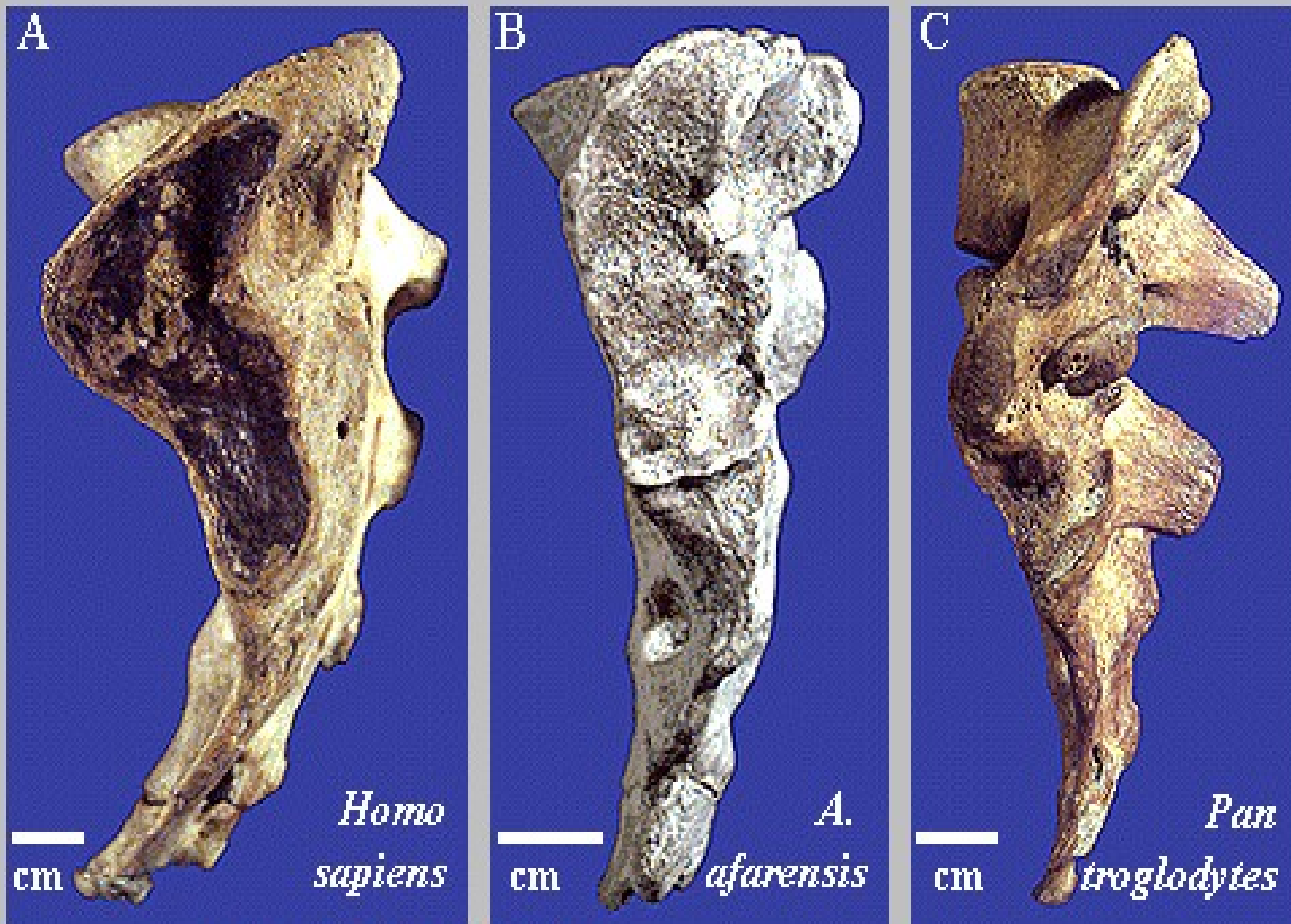


## Sacrum

Anterior view of the modern human pelvis showing the articulation between the left and right os coxae and the sacrum.



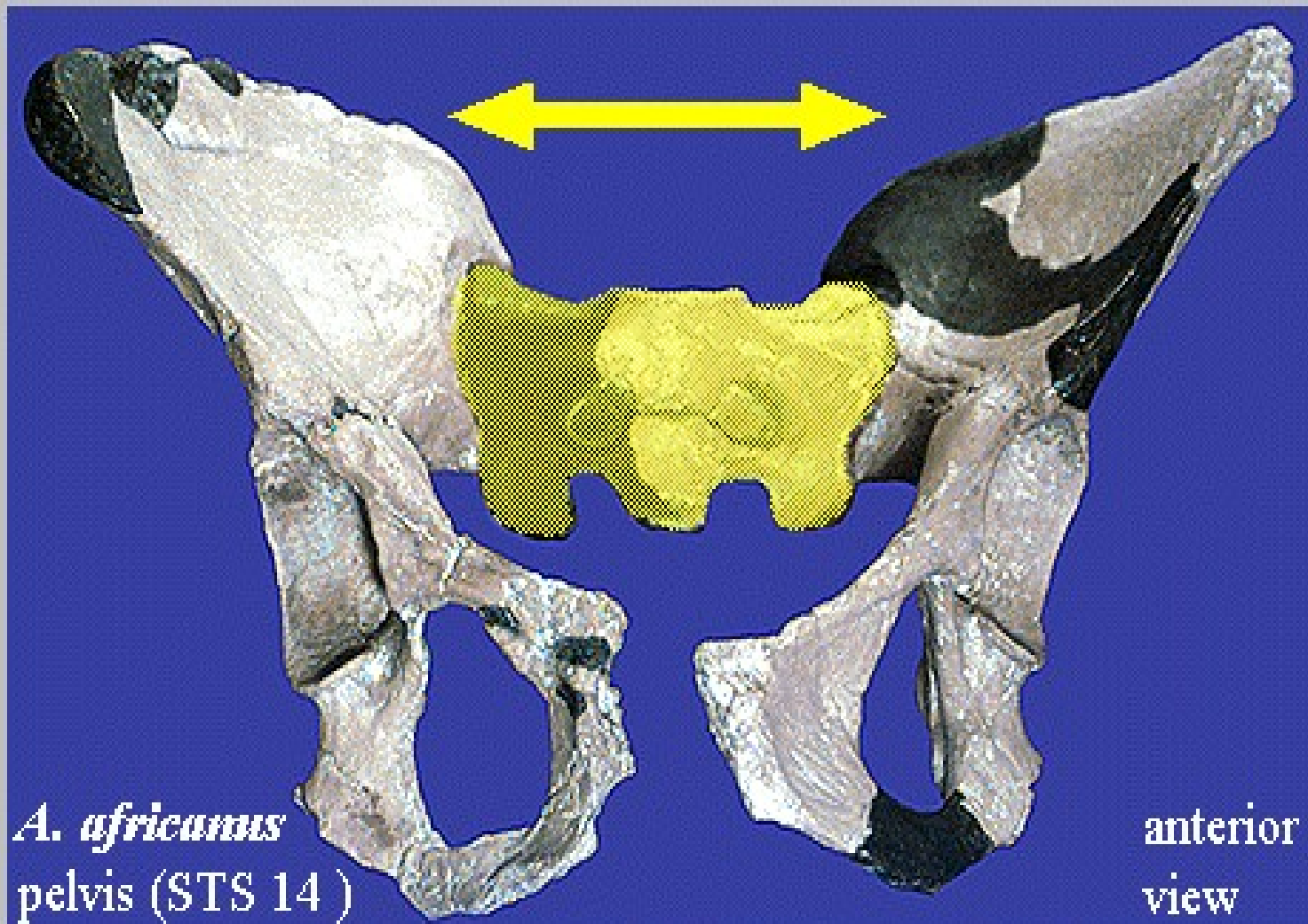
The **sacrum** is comprised of several fused vertebrae and articulates with both the last **lumbar** vertebra, and the pelvis at the **sacroiliac joint**. Note how **broad** the sacrum is in this modern human. The **coccyx** is composed of three to five rudimentary vertebrae.



Left lateral views of male human (A), female *A. afarensis* (B; AL 288-1an), and male chimp (C) sacra.

The large **sacroiliac joint surface** in humans and the small joint surface in chimps is related to the different pattern of weight transmission through the pelvis seen in quadrupeds and bipeds. The shape of the sacroiliac joint also reflects the lumbar curve (curved in humans; straight in chimps). Note that the australopithecine sacrum has a large sacroiliac joint surface but is less curved.

Anterior view of partial sacrum and pelvis of *Australopithecus africanus*. Note that the right half of the sacrum in this specimen and some of the pelvis has been reconstructed (areas in black).

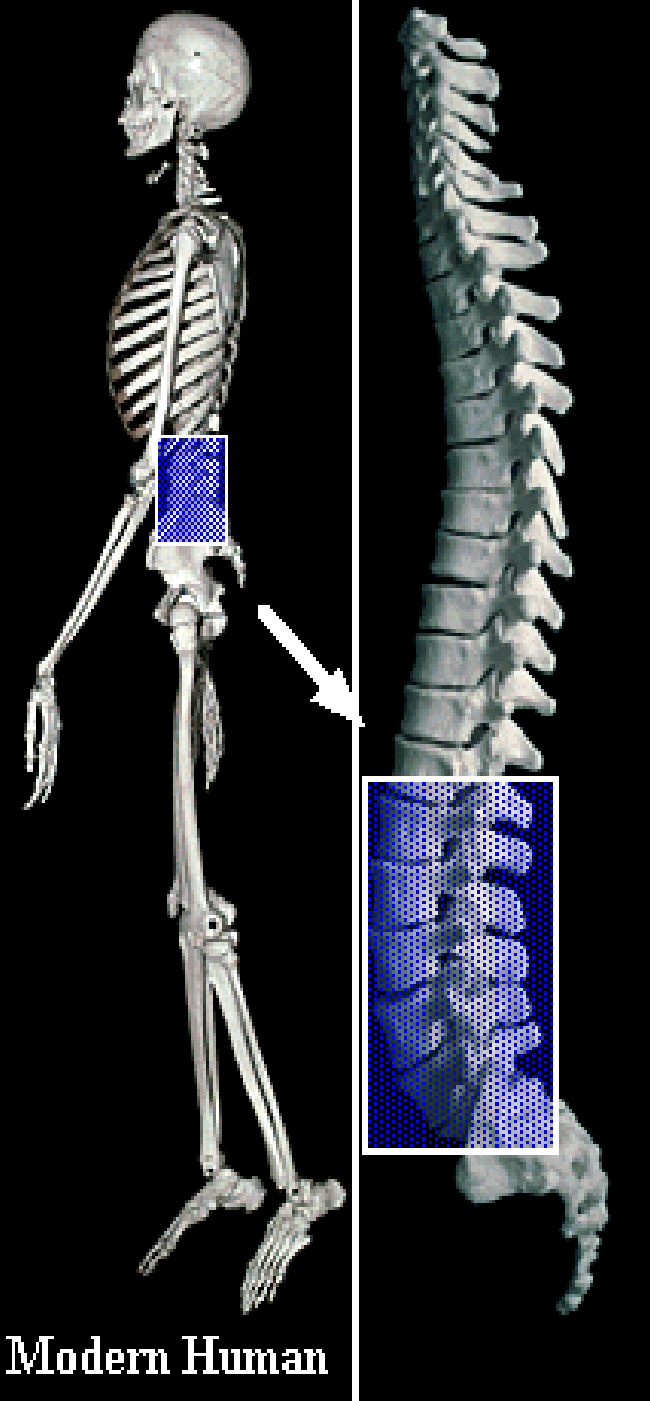


This australopithecine fossil (STS 14) is somewhat fragmentary, but does preserve a partial sacrum comprised of several fused vertebrae. Note that the australopithecine sacrum is **broad** and resembles the sacrum of modern humans. In contrast, quadrupeds generally have narrow sacra.

# Lumbar Curvature

A biped is faced with many biomechanical problems that must be overcome in order to walk on two legs. One of the most critical issues is that of balance. The biped must lift one foot off the ground and swing it forward while balancing on the other foot.

Think of the selection pressures as operating to minimize the energetically costly movements of the center of gravity. **Lumbar curvature** helps to bring the center of gravity closer to the midline and above the feet. The increased number of lumbar vertebrae permits the hips and trunk to swivel forward. In the larger apes, the smaller number of lumbar vertebrae reduces the flexibility of the trunk. As a result, the hips must shift a greater distance with each step when an ape walks bipedally.



Lateral view

— cm

Superior  
view

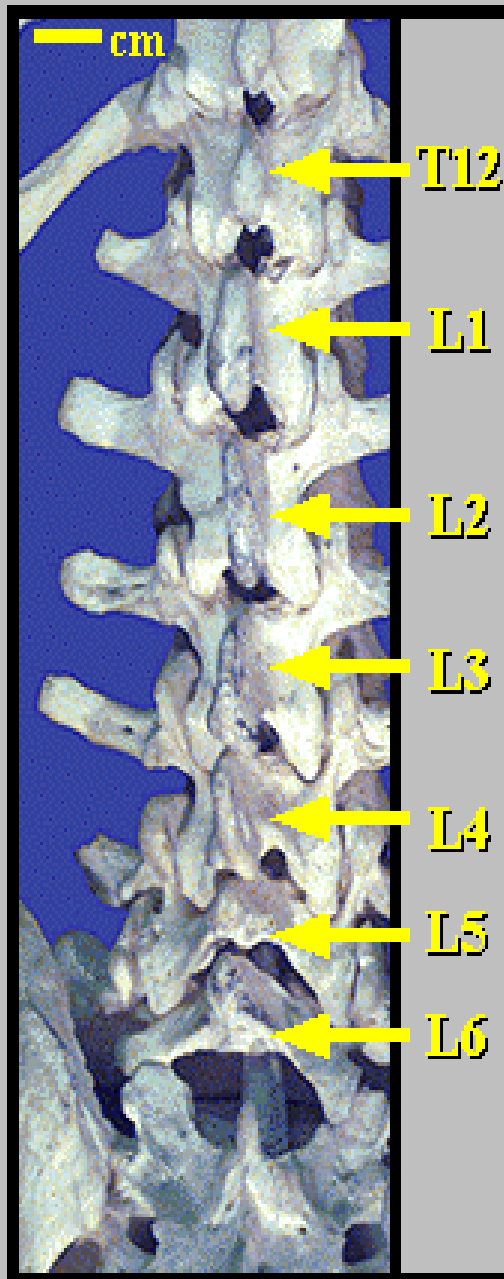


AL 288-1aa *A. afarensis* middle lumbar vertebra

Australopithecine lumbar material is poorly known, but fragmentary remains from Lucy indicate that the lumbar **vertebral bodies** are **broad** for effective weight transmission from the upper body to the pelvis. Australopithecines had five or six lumbar vertebrae that articulate to form a distinctive lumbar curvature, similar to the morphology of modern humans.



## Posterior views



*Homo sapiens*

The number of human lumbar vertebrae varies from four to six among different individuals, with vertebral column shown at left having the relatively common variant number of six (L1-L6). Most humans have five lumbar vertebrae. The last thoracic vertebra is shown as T12.

The lower back consists of the **lumbar vertebrae**, the **sacrum**, and the **sacroiliac joint** that forms the articulation between the **vertebral column** and the **pelvis**.

Humans and apes differ in their number of lumbar vertebrae.

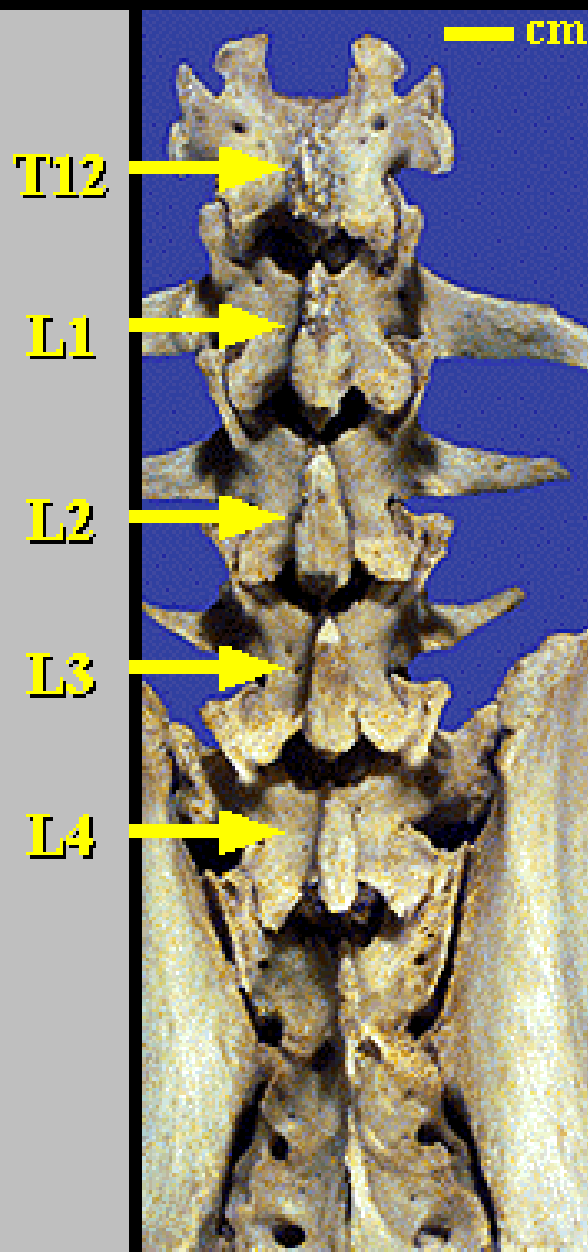
**Humans** usually have five lumbar vertebrae, while most **large apes** typically have four.

Human lumbar vertebrae are also larger in size, and this difference, along with the greater number, forms a lower back that permits more flexion of the trunk and hips when walking. The lower back of the apes is less flexible.



## Posterior views

The number of lumbar vertebrae in the large hominoids (gorilla, chimp, and orangutan) varies from three to five, with four being the average among these three species. The chimp shown at right has four lumbar vertebrae. The last thoracic vertebra is shown as T12.

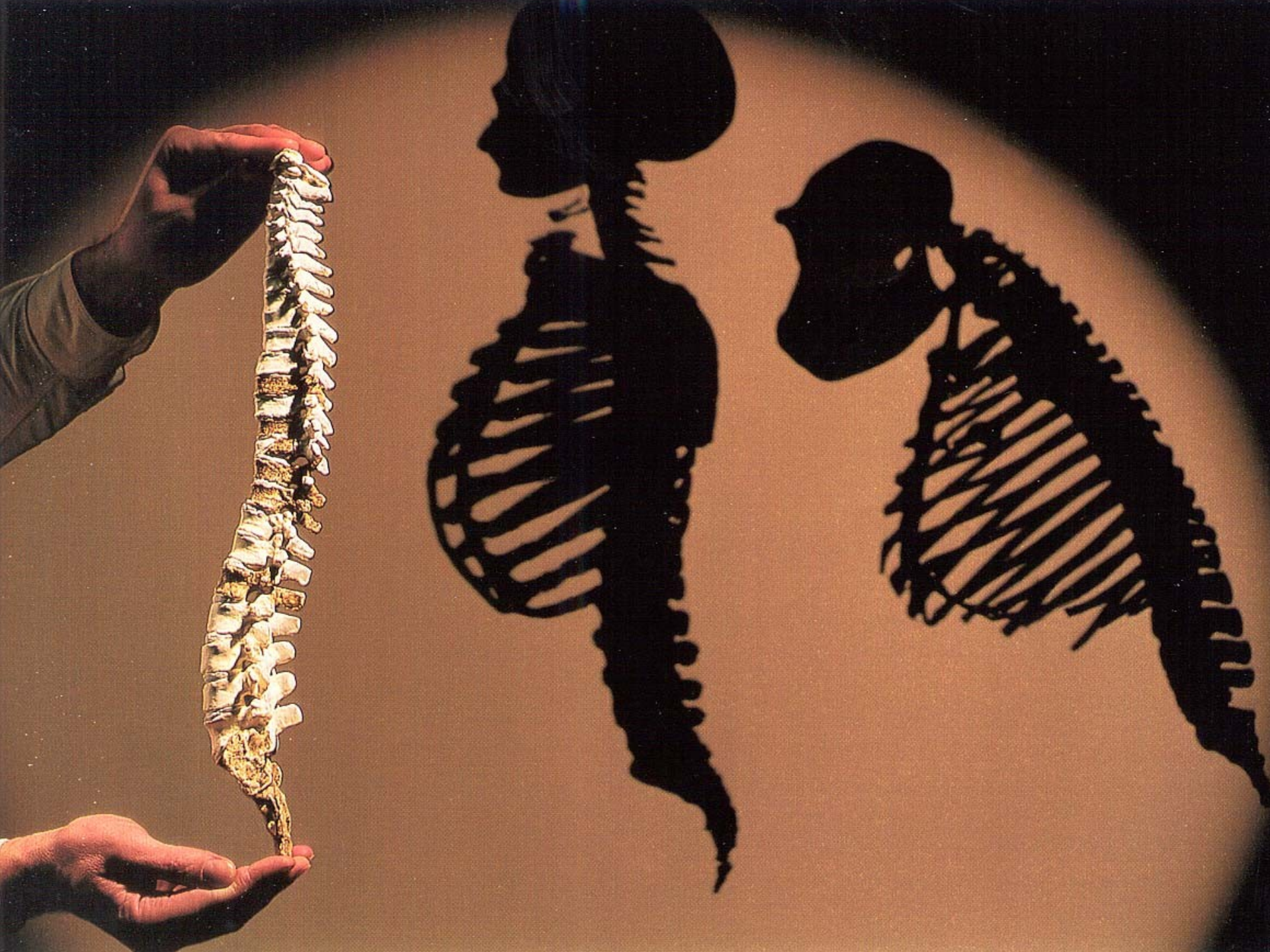


*Pan troglodytes*

The lower back consists of the **lumbar vertebrae**, the **sacrum**, and the **sacroiliac joint** that forms the articulation between the **vertebral column** and the **pelvis**.

Humans and apes differ in their number of lumbar vertebrae. **Humans** usually have five lumbar vertebrae, while most **large apes** typically have four.

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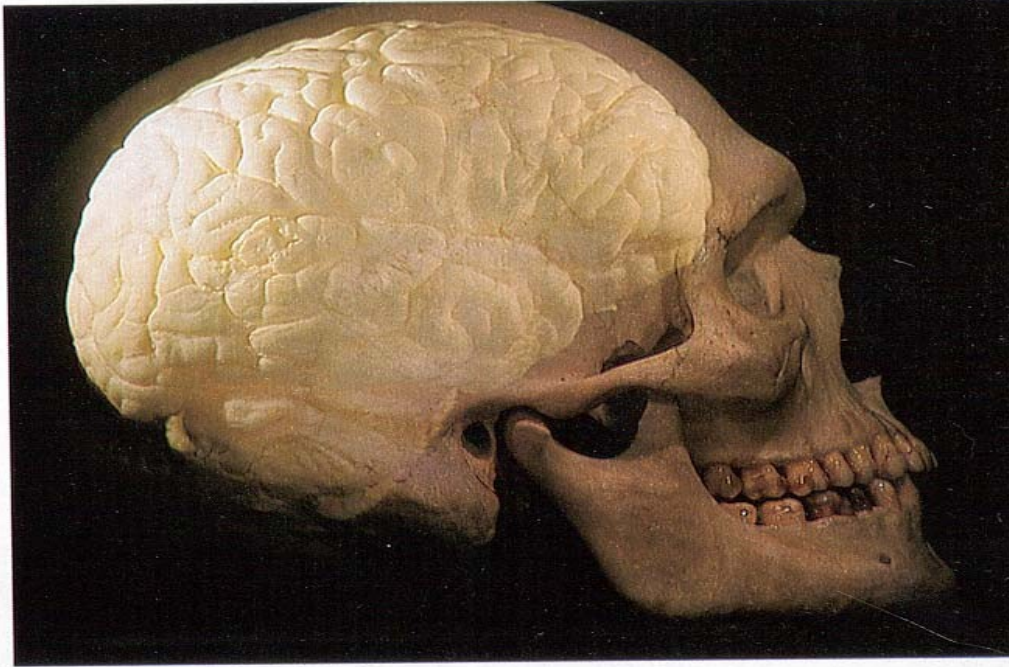
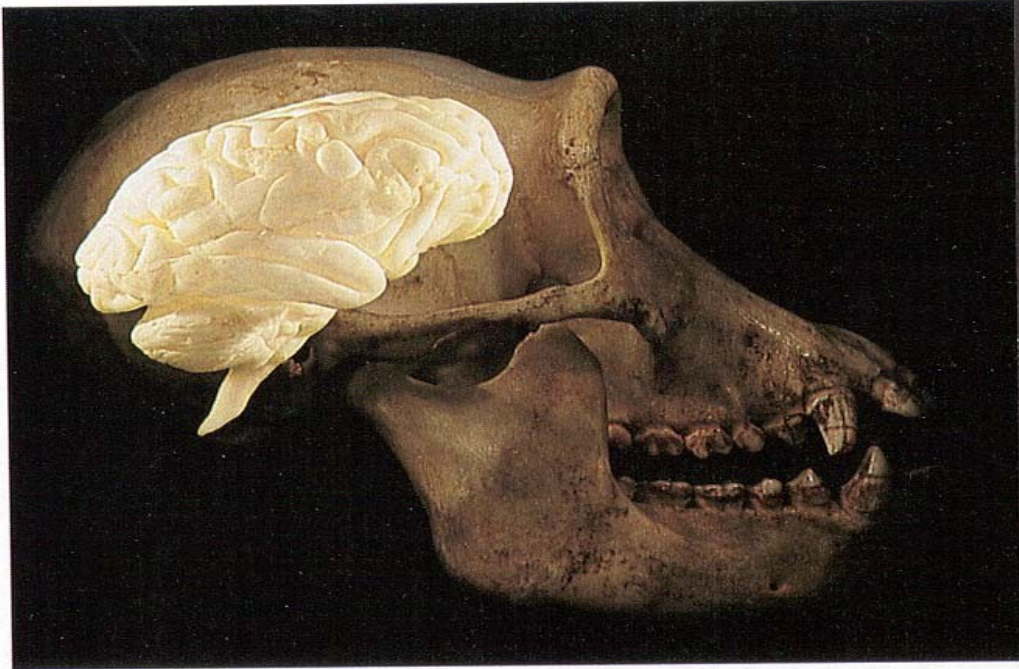













# Brain space

Even the clever chimpanzee (right) seems small-brained next to a modern human (below right) in these images from a University of Zurich exhibit. The head of a baby chimp passes easily through the birth canal (diagram, below). In contrast, tremendous force is required to move a human infant's large head through its mother's narrow pelvis. Scientists speculate that *A. afarensis* females, such as Lucy, shared both conditions: They gave birth to small-headed infants, but the birth process was still difficult, because their pelvises were narrowed for upright posture.

AFTER ROBERT G. TAGUE AND C. OWEN LOVEJOY,  
*JOURNAL OF HUMAN EVOLUTION*, MAY 1986



	Skull clearance at birth	Brain size at birth	Adult brain size
Chimp		 128 cc	 390 cc
Lucy		 162 cc (estimate)	 415 cc
Human		 384 cc	 1,350 cc

















Skull of *Australopithecus africanus* from Taung, South Africa (see also page 143). If the famous Taung child matured at a rate similar to modern apes, then its estimated age at death was three years. This individual was probably preyed upon by an eagle. Actual size. Photograph by David Brill; courtesy of University of the Witwatersrand.













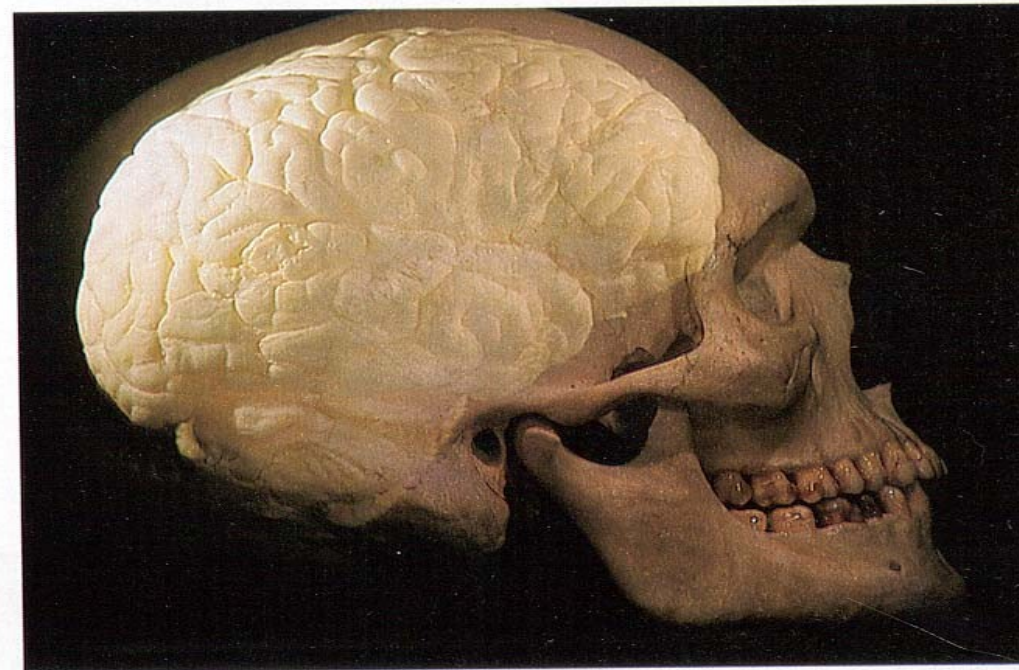
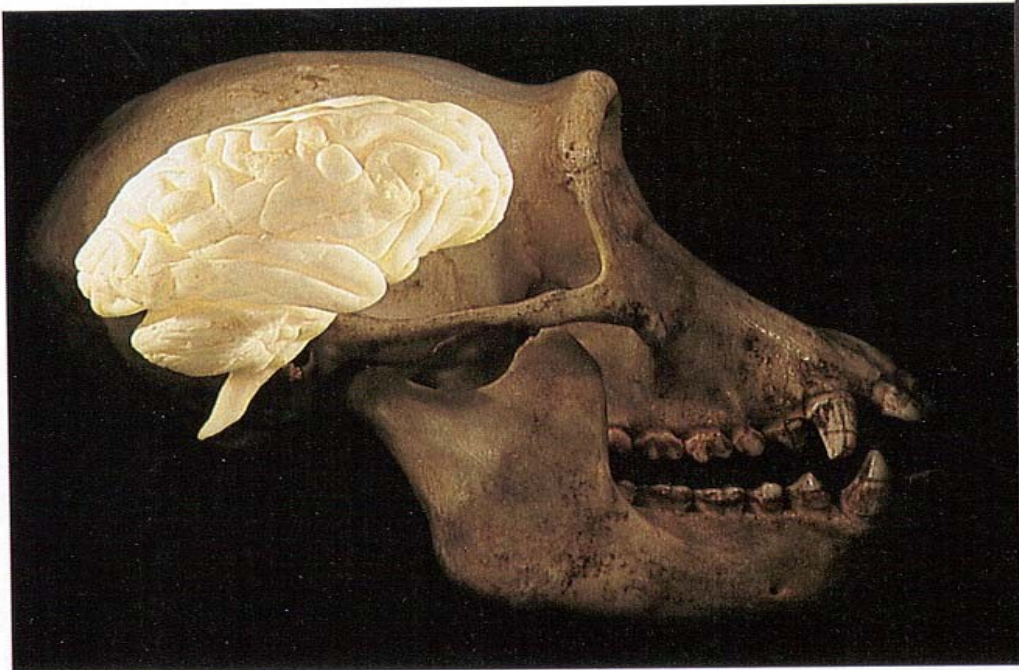













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